The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 28, 1895.

The Week.

THE applications for the new four per cent. United States bonds have been seven times the amount allotted, and they are at a premium of 7 per cent. over the advertised price. When you want to borrow money, it is always wise to go to a place where money is. Secretary Sherman understood this when he was in the business of bond-selling some years ago, as the following cablegram, which he published without any sense of shame, testified:

"LONDON, April 12, 1878.
"Very pleased we have entered into relations again with American Government. Shall do our best to make the business successful.
"ROTHSCHILDS."

There ought to be some little pride left in American credit, even in the Senate of the United States. Somebody ought to have the courage to rise in his place and congratulate the people on the fact that foreign investors, both Jews and Gentiles, are tumbling over each other in their eagerness to get our national bonds, and are paying the gold down "on the nail" for them. Senator Gray ought not to be the only member of that body who is pleased with such proof of our high standing in the money markets of the world. This high standing implies general belief among human beings that the United States will keep its promises, that it has the ability to do so, and the moral sense likewise. A high premium on the bonds is the highest possible compliment to the nation, because it is not open to any suspicion of insincerity. When a man bets his money on the honesty and resources of the United States, there is nothing more to be said in the way of compliment, and the further away the betting is done, the higher the compliment.

We are very glad that the syndicate has made a good bargain. Whatever profit has been made has been due to the exertions of the syndicate themselves. They deserve it all, and the thanks of the American people besides. President Cleveland is likewise entitled to more than thanks. He has earned the highest praise. On this point Mr. F. H. Peabody writes a letter to the Boston *Transcript*, saying that "the one man in the United States who has done more than any other to protect its finances and strengthen its credit is President Cleveland." Then, with an eye evidently on Senator Lodge and Congressman Walker, he adds: "The men who have impoverished its Treasury and tainted its credit are the very Congressmen of both parties who are now abusing Mr. Cleveland, and it is worth while for New Englanders to remember that some of their prominent Republican representatives, who are now vociferous in condemnation of Mr. Cleveland, have themselves assisted by their votes in the unfortunate work."

There are wreckers and wreckers, but Senator Mills is anxious to pose as the chief of them all. The amendment to the sundry civil appropriation bill which he introduced on Saturday entitles him to dishonorable distinction among them. It reads: "And all laws which authorize the secretary of the treasury to sell the bonds of the United States for any purpose are hereby repealed." This would not only prevent action to preserve the national credit in an emergency, but would sweep away all provision for redeeming the greenbacks, and land us at once in the slough of depreciated currency and repudiation. But it is needless to say what it would do. It was not introduced for the purpose of being passed, but for the purpose of showing the country the kind of finances Senator Mills believes in. He evidently craves the title of wrecker-in-chief, and, for our part, we accord it to him without any hesitation whatever.

The suppression of the silver bill of Senator Jones of Arkansas was due in part to the fact that the bill could not be passed at this session of Congress, although it might bring all other public business to a standstill, and in part to the fact that it did not provide for free coinage. The latter term implies the reception of silver from private persons and the coinage of the same into dollars for their account at the ratio of 16 to 1 with gold. The Jones bill provided that the Government should receive silver from private persons at its market value in gold, and coin it so that the Government should receive a little more than one-half of the resulting coins. At the present price of silver the bullion value of the dollar is only 46 cents. Under the operation of the bill the Government would receive from a private person, say, 4,125 grains of standard silver, coin it into $10, hand $4.60 to the depositor of the silver, and retain $5.40. Of course, this does not give any extra profit to the owners of silver mines, although it may "steady the market" for them. On the other hand, it recognizes and sanctions the inferiority of silver as a money metal, and hence is not satisfactory to philosophers of the Bland school. The Jones bill contains all the virus of the Sherman act, which the Senate voted by 11 majority to repeal about eighteen months ago, but it is not what is understood by free coinage.

The House rejected on Monday the clause for paying the Bering Sea claims agreed upon by the President in lieu of sending the whole lot before a commission to be umpired by some foreign power. This was mainly the work of the Republicans, but they were reinforced as usual by a sufficient number of the other side to spoil the broth for the Democratic party as a whole. The ground on which the award was rejected was that more than half of the claimants were American citizens masquerading as British subjects and entitled to no damages in any case. This we have always supposed to be true, but we did not suppose that it was our interest to proclaim to the world that five-ninths of the "poachers" against whom we have been screaming and growing black in the face these many years are Americans. When a similar alternative was offered to Great Britain after the Geneva Tribunal had passed judgment on the *Alabama* claims, she elected to pay the lump sum of $15,000,000; and did pay it without grumbling. There is a surplus of more than $425,000 of that money in our Treasury to-day. We hoped to be spared the humiliation of seeing this claim repudiated. In our domestic relations we may commit any folly, such as throwing $16,000,000 over our shoulder in the matter of a bond sale, or a still larger sum in a Pacific Railroad bill. All this is endurable because it affects only ourselves. Not so an international claim, which affects our standing before the world. As the Jingo spirit which resists the payment of this money is chiefly among the Republicans, it is well to remind them that the Paris Tribunal was the work of the Harrison Administration from beginning to end, that the Cleveland Administration did nothing except receive the verdict and fix the amount to be paid under the damage clause.

That the naval-appropriation bill now pending in the Senate is an extravagant one, even its champions are forced to admit. It carries a total of $31,807,000, as against $25,366,000 a year ago, and $22,104,000 two years ago. It even exceeds the secretary's estimates by nearly $1,000,000—a thing almost unprecedented in appropriation bills. The efforts of the friends of the bill to explain away their lavish appropriations are ingenious if not convincing. You see they were forced to economize last year unduly, owing to the ignorant prejudices of voters about the Government's being extravagant when private citizens were severely cramped; this year it seems safe to ignore those prejudices and hang the expense. Then, too, there are some pretty heavy bills falling due for material and armor and guns ordered by other Congresses. It is "only common honesty" to pay these, but we shall even matters up by authorizing expenses of some $13,000,000 for new battle-ships which not this

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but some future Congress will have to pay. This will balance things nicely, and besides enable us to go on the stump and deny that we have saddled the taxpayers with a needless expense. We can deny, and point to the bill to prove it, that we have appropriated a cent for new battleships. The fact that the bills will have to be paid later will not weigh with fair-minded taxpayers, who will reflect that they may all be dead before pay-day comes round.

Congressman McCreary of the foreign-affairs committee put the question of a Government expenditure of $3,000,000 for a cable to Hawaii in its true light when he said that it was a movement to reverse the nation's policy as to the undertaking of large commercial enterprises, without any assignable reason for doing so. These islands are not on any direct line to any other place, being 2,000 miles south of the direct line to Japan and China, and 500 miles north of the direct line to Australia. As to the claim that the cable would be a great advantage in war, he said that any power strong enough to fight us in the Pacific could easily cut the cable. Moreover, the only thing the cable could do if it were not cut would be to send early news *to* the Hawaiians. News *from* that country during a war with any European power would be of very slight interest or advantage. Mr. McCreary hoped that "all submarine cables will have time to wear out before we have another war." But if a cable is wanted for commercial purposes there was a responsible company prepared to construct one, not merely to the Hawaiian Islands, but to Japan also, and this company asked nothing but an act of incorporation from Congress and the necessary authority to go to work.

By way of showing the importance of a cable, Mr. Boutelle asked Mr. McCreary the question:

> "Now will the gentleman be kind enough to indicate any other port on the globe with which we had *so much commerce* during the last fiscal year as we had with the port of Honolulu?"

Mr. McCreary ventured to name Liverpool and Southampton. Then Boutelle in his agile way said that he meant not commerce exactly, but arrivals and clearances of American vessels, and he proceeded to read a list of such arrivals and clearances showing that only two American ships visited Hamburg last year (or perhaps one such ship visited Hamburg twice), while there were 165 arrivals and departures of American ships from Honolulu. This means that there is an American line of steamers between San Francisco and Honolulu, and that they make regular voyages back and forth, and that a few whalers touch there also. This was what Boutelle attempted to palm off upon the House as a greater commerce than that of the United States with Liverpool, or London, or Hamburg, or Havre.

We felt certain that when we saw the Hawaiian account of J. Cranstoun, the American who was deported from Honolulu, we should get a very different view of his character from the one he himself takes. He said he did not know and was not told either why he was arrested or why he was deported. But the *Hawaiian Gazette* of February 5 makes all plain. It appears that Cranstoun "had been assigned and accepted the undertaking of throwing dynamite bombs into the Central Union Church during services on the Sunday evening the outbreak was scheduled." These, we suppose, were those deadly cocoanut bombs found in the ex-Queen's cellar. The *Gazette* does not say how it knows this, but the story bears all the marks of truth on its face. It is the well-known practice of royalist conspirators to begin operations by killing a lot of women and children in a church. But the *Gazette* adds another charge, if possible more damning: "Cranstoun is the party who was responsible for the split in the rank and file of the Schützen Club." This is enough. Any man who, in addition to readiness to throw bombs into a church, would deliberately go to work to split up the rank and file of a Schützen Club, is no longer fit to breathe the pure air of Hawaii. But is not deportation for such a man dangerous leniency? Will it not encourage bomb-throwing in church—a practice obviously most dangerous to a missionary republic? We think he should have been decapitated. The Hawaiians should understand that the eyes of patriots in this country are upon them in this crisis, and that the hope is universal here that the Missionaries' Sons will not let a single man or woman whom they have robbed of land and power now escape with life.

Senator Vest ought to run home as fast as possible and prevent the Missouri Legislature from passing a bill to make the proposed Kansas City water-works loan payable in gold. We believe that Mr. Vest hails from Kansas City, and is therefore in a double sense interested in preventing this outrage upon silver. Kansas City has been, for some time past, endeavoring to sell $3,000,000 of gold bonds to improve her water supply, but she has met the objection that there is no specific authority in law to make the bonds payable in gold. Hence the city is promoting a bill before the present Legislature, which has passed the Senate, and will without doubt pass the House. The second section of this bill contains the provision that the principal and interest of these bonds shall be "payable at such place in the United States and in such lawful money of the United States as may be specified by the ordinance directing their issue, and in the bonds." This will cure the only defect in the bonds and will enable the city to get the money at once. But the indignity put upon silver will be simply monstrous. It will be every whit as bad as that inflicted upon it by Idaho, Arizona, and Alabama in their recent laws authorizing gold loans and gold contracts, and by Senator Stewart in his gold mortgages. We assume that Congressman Bland is already at home and in the breach, and that Senator Vest will not be far behind him.

The passage, by both houses of the New York Legislature, of a bill forbidding the display of any flag save the American upon the city hall or other public building, except as a courtesy to a distinguished foreign guest, is a victory for simple sanity in politics. It is aimed, of course, at the display of the Irish flag on St. Patrick's day, for no controversy has ever arisen in reference to such use of any other flag. Mayor Hewitt's refusal to allow its display during his term is thought to have been one of the most powerful of the influences which caused his defeat for re-election. The Irish themselves ought to rejoice over the passage of the bill, for it will relieve them of the invidious distinction of being the most childish of all our bodies of foreign-born voters. The assumption that they would vote in a mass to "down" any mayor who refused to unfurl the Irish flag from the city hall on the day of their patron saint, which has been at the bottom of all the hubbub, was due rather to the eagerness of political blatherskites to catch the Irish votes than to the real wishes of the Irish voters themselves.

The situation at Albany is a very clear one now. Platt's hold upon the Legislature is badly broken, but not destroyed. He will still be able to block the progress of reform measures and possibly to defeat them provided public pressure in their support be withdrawn; but if that pressure be continued, the Legislature will not venture to do his bidding. He is pretending that he has had an entirely satisfactory talk with the Governor, as he pretended formerly that he had a satisfactory understanding with Mayor Strong, but there is no foundation for it. He is merely paving the way for another "breach of faith" later when he is forced to explain to his followers the failure of the Governor to comply with his desires. His only hope is that popular interest in reform measures may flag, and that in this way he may induce the Legislature to delay and finally defeat them. This will prove a delusion like all his other hopes. He assured the three Republican police justices who are on the bench with twelve Tammany justices, when he returned to the city last week, that they would not be disturbed, since the bill abolishing that bench and creating a city magistrates' bench would never become a law; but he will not be able to defeat that bill. The moment that the people of this city be-

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come convinced that this and other reform bills are being "held up," from that moment there will arise such an imperative demand for their passage that the Legislature will be forced to obey it. There will be no room for doubt on this point.

On the death of Sir John Seeley, professor of modern history at the University of Cambridge, a report arose that the chair would be offered to Capt. Mahan. One of our contemporaries dwelt on this report with much satisfaction, although with the trifling inaccuracy of calling Cambridge University by the name of Oxford. It would have been, indeed, an excellent appointment. Capt. Mahan would soon have taught the youth of Britain on what flimsy foundations her empire would be resting the moment a true American patriotism should have created a proper fleet, wherewith to occupy Hawäii, overawe Samoa, watch New Zealand, and convert the Pacific into an American lake. But it was hardly to be supposed that the insular conceit, to say nothing of the dark malignity, of England, would give her young men any such golden opportunity to hear the truth. Far otherwise, indeed. Lord Rosebery's Government (for the English crown is astute enough to keep the appointments to the history professorships in its own hands) has conferred the appointment on Lord Acton, a Roman Catholic. It will be clear to every American that the titled aristocracy have it all their way in the old country. Free thought has no chance to expand itself under the blighting upas-tree of a coronet.

There is in the London *Sunday Times* a very amusing interview with Mr. Henry D. McNiel, the secretary of the English Bimetallic League. He is described as a very serious person, with a deep sense of the immense responsibility of his rôle. He showed in the first place that "the masses" are all for bimetallism. Then he defined bimetallism as "the use of gold and silver as a joint standard of value." He was then asked what would be the ratio between the two metals, and he answered that "this was a detail that must be left for settlement by the nations concerned." He was right in treating it as a mere "detail," because if the nations concerned can "settle" it by agreement, they can take any ratio they please—15 to 1 or 30 to 1—without regard to the market value of bullion. In like manner they can fix the value of any commodity by offering to take it at a certain price in Government storehouses or "sub-treasuries." Being asked how the ratio between gold and silver could affect the 99 per cent. of all commercial transactions now conducted by means of credit, he said:

"The answer to that is simple. All transactions would be based on legal tender, and would be expressed in pounds sterling. All credits would be governed under the new system, as they are now, by the legal tender, though we may continue to think in gold. Mr. McLeod is wrong in supposing credits will be uninfluenced when silver is also legal tender."

His notion evidently is that in commercial transactions some merchants would "think in gold" and others would "think in silver," and the gold thinker, when he came to settle up, would let the silver thinker send him his balance in a cart under the legal ratio. The convenience of having both think in the same metal does not seem to occur to Mr. McNiel, or the absurdity of thinking in two metals if it is just as convenient to think in one.

At the last moment the Tories took fright at their own programme, and refrained from beating the ministry on Thursday as they undoubtedly might have done. They would have no scruples about turning Rosebery out on a tricky motion like Sir Henry James's, but what alarmed them was the prospect of a dissolution and going to the country on an issue which really involved injustice to India and bimetallism. Even Lord Salisbury, with his genius for "blazing indiscretions," even Mr. Balfour, with the Manchester bimetallists egging him on, shrank from testing the opinion of the country on those questions. So they concluded that the shrewd party tactics of Sir Henry were too clever by half, and left him to overwhelming and ignominious defeat. The rapid growth of the cotton manufacture in India for some years past, which very much resembles its growth in our Southern States, has been somewhat impeded by both internal taxation and Manchester competition. English cotton goods coming in duty free, the Indian Government two years ago, in compliance with loud native remonstrances, put as much duty on foreign (including English) cottons as would counterbalance the internal taxes to which the industry is exposed. Against this the English manufacturers of Yorkshire and Lancashire have been kicking heavily. The fall in the Indian silver had already converted Manchester to furious bimetallism.

The great round-up of enterprising French editors last week, for the purpose of receiving sentences of imprisonment and fine as blackmailers, ought to furnish a solemn warning to their brethren of the craft on this side the Atlantic. It is true that American journalism has not yet descended to such depths of infamy as have long been synonymous with the newspaper world of France. Our writing bravos are not so openly for hire as theirs, our defamers and blackmailers have not yet brought their art to such perfection, or given it such a range. But if things go on with us as they have been going, we shall not be able much longer to thank God that we are not as those wicked French editors. Our newspaper rage for publicity, our hounding of public men, our invasion of private life, must soon either be bought off, as in France, or shut off by law. To what extent bribery, direct or indirect, already controls the mighty engine of the press, as Mr. Pott of the Eatanswill *Gazette* called it, the outside public, which does not happen to be blackmailed or to want to buy favorable notice, is unaware. The surest remedy is in rigorous laws of libel and their rigorous enforcement. The defeat of the attempt to relax the libel laws of this State last winter was a distinct gain for public morality. In the same interest is the bill just introduced in the Connecticut Legislature by Senator Hall, making it illegal "to publish a description of any social or family gathering in a private house without the consent of the host or hostess, or to publish a will or inventory of an estate without the consent of the executor or the administrator, or to publish the portrait of any individual without his consent, or, if dead, the consent of his representatives."

That Spain is seriously troubled over Cuban affairs may safely be inferred from her pursuing at the same moment the policy of concession and the policy of repression. Tuesday's news told us of actual and threatened outbreaks in the island, and of authority given the Governor-General to declare martial law. Yet it was only on February 15 that the Spanish Congress passed an act according to Cuba a large measure of home rule. This was the fruit of long agitation and negotiation, and was finally voted almost unanimously, only two obstinate Deputies, both Cuban, standing out against the majority, which numbered 245. Its principal feature is the establishment of a Council of Administration for Cuba, composed of thirty members. Fifteen are to be appointed on royal nomination, and fifteen elected by the voters who elect Deputies to the Cortes; the latter, however, must have pretty stringent property and educational qualifications. Within the control of this Council are to be placed many important matters of local government—public works, the posts and telegraphs, laws respecting agriculture and commerce, public instruction and hygiene. True, the Governor-General has a positive veto on any act of the Councils which he "may deem contrary to the laws or to the general interest of the nation"; which looks like giving the form of home rule without the substance. Yet the plan was accepted in the Cortes with a great deal of effusion by all the Cuban Deputies except two, and was thought to promise an era of better feeling between Cuba and the mother country and to be a beginning of constitutional self-government in the island. The irreconcilables, however, appear unwilling to accept anything except absolute independence. But to resist this to her last man and dollar, Spain is pledged by the voice of all her political parties and leaders,

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THE BOND SALE.

CERTAIN brutal newspapers have joined forces with a brutish Congress to cast discredit on the Administration because the recent sale of bonds has yielded a profit to the syndicate instead of a loss, as the two previous bond sales had done. Nothing more discreditable to the intelligence of the nation has ever been seen than these appeals to personal envy and party malignancy. Every day we find some new evidence of the deterioration and baleful influence of the newspapers, which is prevented from being utterly destructive to the Government only by the fact that they jump from one side to the other of all public questions so rapidly that not even the fools can keep pace with them. It would be a mistake to suppose that they have any other motive than the sale of a few extra copies. One sensation is as good as another for this purpose. Bloody murders, elopements, rapes, divorces, and bond sales all come to the same thing.

The Boston *Herald*, we regret to see, has joined the blatherskite press in denouncing the Government, and seeks to excuse itself by saying that "the outcry against the contract is based entirely upon the point that the transaction showed an enormous profit to the syndicate at the very moment it was made." Yes. Overlooking for a moment the fact that what the Government wanted and must have immediately was *gold*, and not its own promissory notes, of which it already had about $90,000,000 lying idle in its vaults, why does not the Boston *Herald* allude to the other fact that President Cleveland had negotiated this very loan at 3 per cent. on the condition that Congress should pronounce the word "gold" in connection with the loan? And why did not the brutish Congress pronounce that word, and thus save the country sixteen million dollars in interest? Because, forsooth, the bonds were payable in gold anyhow! So some of the leading critics of the loan say. Who knows but that the judgment of these smart Congressmen and newspapers, so loudly proclaimed and so widely advertised, caused the very premium which they are now blathering about? This is certainly worthy of their attention. Let us put it to them in a way that they can understand. The President makes two bargains for the purchase of $65,000,000 of gold coin, to be paid for with bonds. Under one of these bargains the interest is to be 3 per cent., on condition that the interest and principal shall be paid specifically in gold. Under the other the interest is 3¾ per cent. if the interest is to be paid in coin, without mentioning any particular kind of coin. The saving of interest under the former will be $16,000,000 for the time the bonds have to run. "Which will you have?" says the President. "The second one," says the brutish Congress, "*because the bonds are payable in gold anyhow.*" "Oh," says the investing public, "we didn't know that. If that is what you mean, we will give 8 per cent. more for the bonds than we had intended to." We should like to have the brutal press give some attention to this phase of the question. We understand that the Rothschilds are somewhat chagrined that they did not put the price of the bonds high enough to catch more of the cream. It is evident that they underestimated the force and popularity of the argument that the bonds are payable in gold anyhow.

Another thing that the Boston *Herald* overlooks is the value of time in the recent transaction. As Assistant Secretary Curtis said in his remarks on Saturday evening, there was a "run" on the Treasury, just like a run on a bank. When things come and go in a hurry, we are apt to forget them in a hurry. The fact is, that unless the bank presidents of New York had refused to meet the demands of their customers to open gold accounts and to draw gold from the Treasury, the whole remaining $42,000,000 would have been drawn out before Saturday night. That is not all. The reserve would have been swept away, just the same, in spite of the refusal of the banks to coöperate in the run, if the news had not been promulgated that another loan was on foot and that it was a foreign loan. This caused a drop in the rate of sterling exchange. There was no more buying of sterling for speculation or in anticipation of future wants. The run was over, but we were within forty-eight hours of a suspension of specie payments. Suspension would have been an act of bankruptcy. It is vastly more difficult to pick up a bankrupt firm or Government and put it on its feet again than it is to prevent it from falling. Moreover, national pride ought to cut some figure in the case. The spectacle of a great rich country, not menaced with war, not obliged to keep a standing army—a country that has paid off nearly two thousand millions of debt in twenty-five years—stumbling into the quagmire of bankruptcy in a time of absolute tranquillity, would have been too humiliating. Yet we were within forty-eight hours of making that exhibition of ourselves.

The Philadelphia *Press* says that Secretary Sherman made *his* contract with the Rothschilds only "after an open issue of bonds had failed." It argues that Mr. Carlisle should have followed that course, and avoided this fearful scandal of seeing Government bonds improve in price. Of course, while Mr. Carlisle was waiting for his open issue to fail, the Government would have failed, too, but that would have been nothing compared to the crime of not doing as Sherman did. But what did Sherman do? Nothing like what the *Press* says. If it had read the various contracts, it would have known better than to say it. The contract of August 24, 1876, gave the hated foreigners the "exclusive right" to the remainder of the bonds. On May 11, 1877, that contract was modified so as to expire on July 1 of the same year, but with the further stipulation that, "during the continuance of this contract, *any sales of bonds* ordered by the secretary of the treasury, by authority of law, shall be made through the parties of the second part." What room did this leave for an open issue? Before the expiration of this monopoly, namely, on June 9, 1877, a new contract was made with the same parties, giving them a further "exclusive right." Probably what the *Press* is muddled over is the fact that this contract contained a clause providing that the syndicate should offer "the people of the United States, at par and accrued interest, in coin the 4 per cent. registered consols . . . *for a period of thirty days.*" This is the *Press's* "open issue," made after the contract, not before it, with everything left in the hands of a foreign syndicate!

Sherman's indiscreet friends should learn from his own silence that there is nothing to be gained for him or scored against Cleveland by raking up the records of those years. In fact, if Carlisle requires an awful warning as to the kind of letters he ought not to write, he will find it in the Sherman correspondence. Only two days, for example, after the execution of the contract last mentioned, Mr. Sherman wrote to a firm of New York bankers that he "would greatly have preferred" to offer bonds to them "and other prominent banks and bankers," but that it was "impracticable." The Shylocks, in other words, had the honorable secretary down. On July 23, 1877, he wrote to Messrs. Belmont speaking of "discontent at the advanced rates at which you hold the bonds, and some complaints that reasonable facilities were not given for the subscription of bonds during the thirty days." On September 22, in the same year, he wrote to his London agent that the syndicate had not met his "expectations in maintaining the price of the four per cents at par in coin. It looked as if this had been permitted with a view to their purchasing up weak holdings at a discount." The shameless foreigners! And the humiliated secretary! We forbear to quote other letters of his which show that he was as uneasy in those days as he is now over bankers making more than a "reasonable profit" out of the Government. But it may be as well here to record his confession, made to President Hayes on April 9, 1878, that the contract he was about to close, again with the dreadful foreigners, for $100,000,000 4½ per cent. bonds, put the price at a figure "below what I regarded as the minimum rate when I conversed with you, and somewhat *below the actual quotations for these bonds in the market.*" On the whole, the Sherman glass house does not seem to be a good base of supplies for this cruel war.

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NON-PARTISAN COMMISSIONS.

THERE was perhaps some color of equity in the theory of non-partisan commissions when it was first brought forward. The public were assured, and to some extent believed, that in this way the evils of excessive partisanship would be modified. The passions and prejudices aroused in political strife, it was supposed, were to subside and be mollified when the contestants were brought face to face, and compelled to arrange some *modus vivendi*. Compromise, which is the distinguishing feature, if not the great merit, of party government, would necessarily determine the action of such commissions, and partisanship itself was to lose half its evil in losing all its grossness.

This theory was quickly exploded by the test of experience. It was found that such commissions failed to improve the character of the Government's service, while it became impossible to fix the responsibility for maladministration. It is not easy to do this in the case of any board of commissioners, but when such a board consists of men identified with one party, the people can hold that party responsible for its servants and creatures, and inflict punishment, after the rude manner in which alone the people can come at its rulers, by a general defeat of office-holders at the polls. But with a non-partisan commission, it was presently discovered, this method of punishment was taken away from the people. No matter how gross the corruption or mismanagement of such a commission, no rebuke to it was possible by the defeat of one party, since, as a rule, this merely implies the success of the other. The non-partisan commission, therefore, furnished such a wall of salvation to the politicians as enabled them to smile serenely at all their foes, and grew as rapidly in favor with them as it declined with the community. It is proof against all attack except in the rare cases when a third party or independent movement succeeds; and for aught that we can tell, had Tammany Hall been wise enough to keep the Police Commission non-partisan, there might have been no investigation and no revolution.

These objections to this mode of filling office have now come to be so well understood that it is unnecessary to dwell upon them. But there are others which may be regarded as even more serious. For, rightly considered, the theory of non-partisan, or more properly bi-partisan, office-holding implies the disfranchisement of those citizens who are not identified with either of the party organizations. Statutes constituting these commissions sometimes prescribe that not more than a certain number of the commissioners shall belong to one party, but they are also drawn so as to require all the commissioners to belong to one party or the other. In such case it is evident that no citizen unconnected with party can obtain the office, and independent voters and third-party men are thus disfranchised.

In view of the recent elections this disfranchisement may affect a very large class. The expression "belonging to a party" is a very loose one. Great numbers of voters appear, in one sense of the word, to have belonged to one party two years ago and to belong now to the other. Two years from now they may change their party again. Many citizens vote for the candidates of a party upon a particular occasion, without claiming or admitting that they belong to that party. But the very difficulty of defining party membership tends to increase the power of the politicians. They constitute the party organization, and they can include and exclude whom they choose. Hence, in the effort to attain a definition of party membership, we see that adherence to particular principles of government is not a test in popular usage, while submission to the orders of those who form themselves into an organization to which they give a party name is such a test. As is true of names in general, a thing is what it is commonly called. A Republican or a Democrat is a man who calls himself and is called of others by that name. In other words, no one is a member of a political party who is not admitted to be such by the majority of those who claim to be of that party. No independent voter can be a member of an organization of which he repudiates the authority, or hold a party name unless he and those who act with him control the organization of that party.

Undoubtedly there are those who believe, as there certainly are many who proclaim, that it is the duty of every good citizen to belong to a party, to "attend the primaries," etc. However this may be, it is reasonable to suppose that if the real aim of the non-partisan theory is to diminish partisanship, that aim would be best attained by the appointment of men who have no party connection. The functions of the non-partisan commission are evidently semi-judicial in character, and when men refer a disputed matter to an arbitrator they naturally select one who has not shown himself prejudiced on either side. But it is idle to speculate concerning such superhuman consistency as this, and if the politicians will refrain from attempting to prohibit citizens not of their class from holding office, we need not ask of them any self-denying ordinance.

But it cannot for a moment be admitted that abstention from party allegiance establishes the slightest presumption of unfitness for administering office. The recent election in the city of New York gave the lie to this assertion. The great reform which was inaugurated was made possible only by the patriotism of large numbers of citizens who repudiated all party claims. To maintain that all such citizens disqualified themselves for holding office is preposterous. It is impossible to deny that outrageous corruption existed in the administration of the city goverment, and it is equally impossible to deny that this corruption could be checked only by independent action on the part of voters. Submission to orders and unquestioning obedience may be military, but are not civic, virtues. It stands to reason that the citizen who conscientiously endeavors to secure good government is more valuable to the community than he who contents himself with voting for the candidates presented to him by party leaders. It is very easy to do the latter, and very laborious and trying to do the former. But if there were not citizens who preferred their country to their party, we should be in a bad way, and the fact that the theory of non-partisan commissions prohibits such citizens from holding office is its sufficient condemnation.

"THE NEW CRITICISM."

WE do not mean by this title Biblical criticism, whether higher or lower; we refer, rather, to the distinctly profane walks of literature. "The New Log-Rolling" is an alternative name for it. It is the name given it by a writer in the *Westminster Gazette* who signs himself "Philistine," and who brought upon himself a perfect avalanche of exasperated rejoinders from outraged poets and essayists by denying the probability that 1894 had witnessed a sudden outburst of genius in England "such as few decades in the history of our country have surpassed." Pushing scepticism to an extreme, he actually demanded better evidence that Jones's volume of verse would enjoy a deathless immortality than the mere assertion of Brown that such would be the case; Brown's infallibility as a critic being in the meantime vouched for by Jones, who declares that he has always found Brown's critical judgments marked by sure insight and impartiality. This scepticism is not original with "Philistine," however. It first appeared, if we rightly remember, in the *Athenæum's* review of English literature for 1893, of which it said the most marked feature was the touching unanimity and enthusiasm with which six or eight new geniuses had discovered each other.

The defence of the geniuses is frank confession. Mr. Richard Le Gallienne, under his own signature, and others, under assumed names, write to the *Gazette* to admit that they do review each other's books and let each other know it; that many fast friendships have been formed through courtesies of that sort, and that people who object to such critical log-rolling belong to the class of "literary homicides whose howls of torment will be the only clarions of their fame." After this cry of honest indignation, they revert to general principles. The new criticism is based on the great truth that it is better to "overpraise than meanly belittle" (of course, the critic has to do one or the other). It is urbane, genial, long-suffering, preferring to flatter ten

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undoubted fools than to discourage one possible Keats. It aims to develop a wall-eye for glaring defects and a keen nose for hidden merits. Its favorite syllogism is: All great writers have been belittled; therefore, all belittled writers will be great.

If this were purely a British literary phenomenon, we should not feel called on to comment upon it in our intensely American columns. But the new copyright law has not kept it from our shores any more than it has kept away those disgusting British novels which sell so scandalously. It may be that the American literary log-roller does not ply his art so unblushingly as his English brother, but that he plies it no ordinarily attentive observer of critical methods in vogue can doubt. The game which those who are at it think so deep, though it is really so transparent, is played in this way. Mr. Gifted Hopkins brings out a volume of 'Echoes of Apollo's Lute.' Speedily there appears a review in the journal of which Mr. Macaulay Tupper is the editor, informing an astonished world that the successor of Tennyson, Browning, and Lowell has been found. But the poetic Hopkins has also his critical journal, and in it, within two weeks, appears a notice of Macaulay Tupper's 'The Soul of the Centuries,' in which the reviewer reins himself in from saying what he really thinks about these masterly essays, lest it might look like disloyalty to the memory of Lamb, Sainte-Beuve, and Schlegel. Tupper's paper chivalrously ripostes the week following by saying that Hopkins's organ of opinion had always seemed to it a model, but that of late it had been particularly strong. Of course, the demand for this sort of thing soon creates journals specially devoted to "Literary Gossip," in which the great men write of themselves and each other with immense appreciation and complacence.

Now, there are those whom these antics fill with deep disgust. They think it a phenomenon at which the judicious should grieve, and grieve only. The ancient and honorable calling of the critic they believe to be degraded by these professors of the new art of criticism. They would like, as against the new criticism, a fresh assertion of the old criticism, which feels its responsibility to the public and to truth, and which refuses to write book reviews on charity-organization principles. But the case does not seem to us so serious as that. The affair is not so much one to make the judicious grieve as to make them laugh. What the new critics most need is such treatment as Archbishop Tait proposed for a clerical correspondent of his who suggested some improvements in the Lord's Prayer. "Tell the man," he said to his private secretary, "tell the man that he is a consummate ass, but do it kindly." The kindest service any one can do the new critics is to tell them that their log-rolling is both perfectly understood and perfectly ineffective.

It arises, principally, from their seeing too much of each other. It is worse than provincial—it smacks of the back-yard and the village store. The exact prototype and truest exemplar of the new criticism is to be found, in fact, in the village newspaper. There no squash is raised which is not of phenomenal size and sure to take first prize at the county fair; no trotter is mentioned which cannot force any of 'em to take the dust; no Fourth of July oration which does not imperil Webster's fame; no sermon which does not deeply impress an unusually large congregation. The reason is, that the editor knows he must meet every day the owners of the squash and the trotter, the orator and the preacher; and how could he face them if he had said the squash was but a spindling growth, the trotter knock-kneed, the oration fustian, and the sermon mortal dull? So it is with our new critics. Their mutual admiration grows out of, and is exaggerated by, their too intimate intercourse. How can you say unpleasant things of a man who claps you on the back twice a week at the Admirable Crichton Club and says, "Old man, that essay, poem, speech, review of yours was the greatest thing you've done yet"? What the new critics need most of all is to cultivate the silences and the solitudes. Then, if any of them is called upon to do a bit of that very newest style of the new criticism—a "conversation" with some great man—he need not feel compelled to close by saying: "I felt that I had spent an hour with a strong and virile intelligence, whose best work the world may yet expect," but may safely say, if he will, "I found the interview a good deal of a bore, and think the man has pretty clearly exhausted his vein."

If the new criticism had the practical effect of selling one additional copy, or making a cold world accept its token-money of fame at even 50 per cent. discount, it would lack something of being supremely ludicrous. But log-rolled greatness is unknown outside the circle of log-rollers. It leaves its happy recipients, like Amos Barton, with the conviction, but without the sensation, that they are great men. With so many kind friends telling a writer that he is a genius, he gets to wonder why he does not feel like one. What horrid doubts must sometimes assail a company of the new critics! There sits the best novelist since Scott, here the poet that makes Tennyson's bays green with envy, yonder the acutest critic of a dying century; it must be so, because they have all said it of each other in cold and veracious type. But the strain even on their own credulity must, on occasion, become too great, and a spirit of contrition and confession seize them all, moving them to say —though they never do say it—"Brothers, we are all poor sinners, doing our little daily stints as best we may, but only mortal, only very fallible; and the best resolve we can make is, not to insult the august shades of the mighty dead by mentioning their names in the same breath with our own."

ARGON.

THE announcement of the probable existence of a new element in the atmosphere, made by Lord Rayleigh and Professor Ramsay at the meeting of the British Association last summer, aroused the profound attention of the scientific world. A number of elements have been discovered in the last quarter of a century, but all of them are metallic substances which occur in minute quantities in rare minerals. The latest addition to the list of non-metallic elements was bromin, discovered nearly seventy years ago, and the existence of an undiscovered element belonging to this group did not appear probable. Still less likely did it seem that such an element could be present in the atmosphere. Our knowledge of the air was satisfactory and complete. Innumerable analyses had established the facts in regard to its composition. Hence the announcement above referred to was met with much scepticism, in spite of the eminent character and skill of the men who made it; and the whole chemical world has waited anxiously and impatiently for a full account of the work. This has now been given in a paper by Lord Rayleigh and Professor Ramsay which was read before the Royal Society at a special meeting on January 31. The long delay between the preliminary announcement and the presentation of the paper is fully accounted for by this statement of Lord Rayleigh's:

"The research has been in many respects a very difficult one. I am not without experience of experimental difficulties, but certainly I have never encountered them in anything like so severe and aggravating a form as in this investigation. Every experiment that one attempts, takes about ten days or a fortnight to carry out to any definite conclusion, and the result has been of necessity much less progress than we could have hoped for, and many of the questions have been left open which we could have wished to settle."

The history of the discovery is in brief as follows: In the course of a series of determinations of the densities of some of the more permanent gases, Lord Rayleigh found in the case of nitrogen that if obtained from chemical compounds it was about one-half per cent. lighter than if extracted from the atmosphere. This discrepancy was naturally thought at first to be due to contamination with impurities consisting of known substances. When experiment had demonstrated that this was not the case, the dissociation of the molecules of the nitrogen derived from chemical sources into detached atoms suggested itself as a possible explanation of its greater lightness. But both gases subjected to the action of the silent electric discharge retained their densities unchanged. This was discouraging, and a further experiment of a different kind disposed of this explanation in a still more decisive manner. It was exceedingly improbable that the nitrogen of chemical origin could be a mixture, as that would necessitate the existence of two kinds of nitric acid. The simplest remaining explanation was to admit the existence of a second ingredient in the nitrogen obtained from the atmosphere. If the supposed gas had a density half as much again as that of nitrogen, the presence of one per cent. would suffice to explain the observed differences in density. This explanation brought the investigators face to face with the great-improbability that a gas all about us and present

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in such enormous quantity could have remained so long unsuspected. Its demonstration demanded the isolation and identification of the new gas, and to the solution of this problem the research was now directed.

It is interesting to note here that Cavendish, more than a hundred years ago, in his careful and exact study of atmospheric nitrogen, had really raised this same question of possible admixture with another gas. Describing his attempts to cause a complete union of atmospheric nitrogen with oxygen by means of the electric spark, he says: "If there is any part of the phlogisticated air [nitrogen] of our atmosphere which differs from the rest and cannot be reduced to nitrous acid, we may safely conclude that it is not more than 1-120th part of the whole." Cavendish, however, laid no emphasis on this residual 1-120th, except as indicating by its minuteness the great purity of the nitrogen from air. But in these days science no longer neglects "residual phenomena," and has found, in many cases before this, abundant evidence of the valuable results to be obtained by study of them.

In the first attempts to isolate the suspected gas, Cavendish's method was employed. Electric sparks were passed through air confined over weak alkali, and oxygen gradually added till in excess. The products of the union of nitrogen and oxygen caused by the spark were absorbed by the alkali, and finally, when no further absorption took place, the excess of oxygen was removed by alkaline pyrogallate. A residue was obtained which was in all instances proportional to the amount of air operated upon.

Another method for isolating argon, and which also serves for preparing it in considerable quantities, is as follows: Air from which moisture and carbon dioxid have been removed is freed from oxygen by passing it over red-hot copper, and from nitrogen by magnesium turnings heated to a bright redness. The removal of the last portions of nitrogen is a tedious operation, requiring some two days, when the residual gas is found to be pure argon.

The gas obtained by either of these methods has a density one-fourth greater than oxygen (16:20), and dissolves in water about two and a half times as freely as nitrogen. On account of its solubility, it is present in larger proportion in the gases dissolved in rain-water than in the air, as is indicated by the fact that "nitrogen" prepared from the gases expelled from water has a higher density than that from air.

The spectrum of argon has been examined by Prof. Crookes, who finds that "no other spectrum-giving gas or vapor yields spectra at all like those of argon," and says further, "As far, therefore, as spectrum work can decide, the verdict must be that Lord Rayleigh and Prof. Ramsay have added one if not two members to the family of elementary bodies."

Prof. Olszewski of the University of Cracow, well known for his researches on the liquefaction of air and other gases, was furnished with 300 cc. of argon for the determination of its behavior at low temperatures and high pressures. He reports that it can be liquefied only when its temperature is reduced (by liquid ethylene) to —121° C., and that the necessary pressure at that temperature is 50.6 atmospheres; or, in other words, that its "critical temperature and pressure" are —121° and 50.6 at. respectively. Its boiling-point is —186.9° C.; it freezes to an ice-like mass at —191°, and melts at —189.6°. In its behavior at low temperatures it stands between oxygen and nitrogen, whose critical temperatures are —118° and —146° respectively, and whose boiling-points are —182.7° and —194.4°.

Chemically, argon appears to be more inert than nitrogen, all attempts to induce chemical action with even the most active substances having proved abortive.

The facts so far obtained do not warrant a final decision in regard to its simplicity. If not an element, it is a mixture. There is evidence on both sides, but the balance seems to be in favor of simplicity. Not only does argon appear to be a single elementary substance, but its molecules are apparently of simplest possible structure. A determination of the ratio of its specific heats at constant volume and constant pressure points to the conclusion that its molecules are monatomic, *i. e.*, composed of a single atom each, instead of two atoms, as is the case in almost all elementary gases and vapors.

Certain very interesting and important theoretical issues are raised by this conclusion. In connection with the density which the gas has, it indicates an atomic weight of 40. But in this case there is no place for the new element in the tables of Mendeleieff, which express the periodic law, and which have been so generally accepted. If argon should turn out to be a mixture, the difficulty may disappear; but if its simple character is finally demonstrated, an awkward dilemma is offered between the validity of the periodic law and that of the conclusions drawn from the determinations of specific heat ratios. The periodic law of Mendeleieff is, after all, as Prof. Rücker has said, "an empirical law, which rests on no dynamical foundation." The present situation will strengthen many chemists in their feeling that, although the law is a generalization which has in it many elements of truth, and has hence proved of much value to chemistry, it is by no means a complete or final expression of the relations of the elements.

The discovery of argon is a brilliant achievement. As Prof. Crookes said before reading his paper on the spectra of argon, "Here we have a new chemical element, the principal properties of which seem to be the negation of all chemical properties. Chemists will understand how difficult it is to deal with anything which forms no compounds and unites with nothing. The discovery commenced by a prediction, followed after an interval by realization. . . . The prediction and discovery of argon are only equalled by the few discoveries . . . made . . . by the careful study of the periodic law, and to surpass it we must go back to the predicted existence and subsequent discovery of an unknown planet by Adams and Leverrier."

THE PROBLEM OF SARDINIA.

ALASSIO, Italy, February 7, 1895.

IN spite of beautiful scenery, picturesque costumes, and local color of the intensest hues, Sardinia is almost utterly unknown to the pleasure-seeking tourist. A few Italian sportsmen, disgusted with the poverty of game at home, visit the island in search of the moufion, which is abundant there, a few archæologists are attracted by the *nuraghi*, or the gold idols of Tharros, but these and a few curious of one sort and another are but as a drop in the tide of travel. For the world at large, Sardinia might as well be in the centre of the Pacific as on a Mediterranean highway. As a matter of course, a land that is so little visited is deficient in hotels, few towns being able to boast even a bad one; and the railways, that cost the Government 11,000,000 lire a year over and above their receipts, can scarcely be expected to pamper their public with fast trains and luxurious coaches.

Moreover, in spite of great fertility of soil and rich mines—both sources of wealth in the times of Carthage and of ancient Rome—as well as of admirable harbors, the island is poor. Such industries as exist are chiefly in the hands of strangers. Foreign capitalists, it is said, are the principal owners of the mines; the railways were constructed by an Anglo-Italian association, to whom the Government gave at one time 200,000 hectares, about half a million acres of land; the tunny fishery yields annually large sums to fishermen from the towns and villages of the Genoese coast, while Genoese and Sicilians catch and sell the sardines (that take their name from the island) and the anchovies; and, finally, the coral-divers (except in the banks to the north of Sassari) come from Naples, and carry back there the fruits of their labors.

With agriculture the case is no better. A large part of the island is covered with barren mountains, and of the extremely fertile plains in the west, where the vegetation is of tropical luxuriance, only about half is under cultivation—if it can be called cultivation where the ground is barely scratched with a primitive substitute for a plough, and the use of manures is almost entirely neglected. And yet these plains were once the granary of Rome and of Carthage, and, by the use of proper means, the yield might to-day be greater than ever it was. The wild olive is abundant, and needs only grafting to give excellent results. The orange groves are the greatest and the most productive of the whole basin of the Mediterranean, and yet the fruit is not exported. Wine, for want of suitable treatment, is in general coarse and heady. Such as it is, it is sent in great quantities to the Genoese coast where it is mixed with the lighter native growths, not to their improvement, or sold at so low a price that the poorest can spoil their palates with it and muddle their brains.

Things have bettered a good deal within the last twenty years, but Sardinia still suffers from ills that will be long in the curing. With a surface very little inferior in extent to that of Sicily, Sardinia has less than a fourth as many inhabitants. The mountains support a few half-barbarous shepherds, while in the plains the *intemperie*, a malarial fever fatal to strangers, reigns during four or five months of the year. Indeed, the climate of the Sardinian lowlands has from the remotest antiquity been known as one of the deadliest in Europe. Of course, a system of draining, such as has reclaimed a part of the Tuscan Maremma, may some day remedy this evil; where only a small fraction of the land (one-fifth, it is said) is private property, even this means will not insure the entire development of the soil.

Nor is the task of adapting the Sard to the conditions of modern civilization altogether easy; and not long ago the attention of Italy was called to one of the problems that are still imperfectly solved—that of public security. Various exploits of brigandage were followed, in November last, by an armed aggression with robbery, at once so bold and so atrocious that it was quite evident that the ordinary measures for the protection of life and property were now inadequate. A band of men, perhaps a hundred in number, took by assault and sacked a house. The feat was accompanied by a battle with the carabinieri, which lasted,

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if I remember rightly, two or three hours, and in which several persons were killed and wounded. As one of the results of this affair, the Milanese *Corriera della Sera* sent a correspondent to report upon the state of public security in the island. His letters reveal a condition of morals, a survival of mediæval barbarism in the nineteenth century, that is more curious than admirable.

Brigandage, robberies, the vendetta, deeds of violence of all sorts, have from time immemorial been common in Sardinia. The innumerable conquests of the island, with the attendant wrongs and bad government, would, in great measure, account for the fact, and that it has been left as a legacy to our times. Under the present rule a large part of the population has been made amenable to law and order, and the continuance of the ancient régime of rapine and murder has been confined to certain portions, chief among which is the mountain district of Barbagia, about the huge mass of Gennargentu, where the inhabitants have preserved for two thousand years their reputation of indomitable barbarians. Carthage, Rome, Genoa, Pisa never subdued this part of the island, and it is evident to-day that the work of civilization has here still to be done. A few details, which I borrow almost exclusively from the correspondent of the *Corriera della Sera*, will show the extent of the evil.

The assault upon a house in Tortoli, which, as I have already said, resulted in loss of life as well as of property, was made by a band composed of about one hundred men, most, if not all, of whom, it seems, were well-to-do, and had not the excuse of want to palliate their outrage. Though they destroyed the furniture of the house with hatchets, they took away only gold and jewels. The floor was everywhere left covered with objects that would have tempted a poorer mob. Such arrests as have been made were all among families of means.

What is singular is that there are so many of the same sort—that is, the men concerned are above need and rob for the love of sport, just as others fish or shoot game. Of course there are poorer men who make up their own deficiencies from the store of their neighbors, and depredations are most frequent in hard times. In general, however, the prospect of a rich booty is enough to arouse in all classes the uncontrollable desire of spoliation. I said *all* classes: two anecdotes communicated by a Sardinian to a Roman journal will serve to show that the expression may be taken literally. A *sottoprefetto*, after having well studied the district over which he was set, was asked by the Minister of the Interior to furnish a list of dangerous persons with a view to their surveillance, and replied that, if he answered conscientiously, he must head the list with the district's member of Parliament. Another *sottoprefetto* of the same *circondario* was, shortly after a great robbery conducted with a stealth that had baffled the police authorities, invited to dine with one of the notabilities of his town. In unfolding his napkin at the table, the official cast down his eyes and recognized, to his horror, the forks and spoons marked with the name of the victim of the misdeed.

Another singularity of this state of things is that the robberies are not effected by regularly organized bands. A band is formed, 50, 80, or even 100 strong, as each occasion arises, and is dissolved once its purpose is accomplished. Their formation can scarcely be a matter of great difficulty when there are plenty of towns and villages where nearly the entire population is ready for such enterprises. In many cases they never commit depredations within the limits of their own commune, but the general condition is not benefited by this restriction. Indeed, it is said that not long ago a lawyer defending a too notorious client, turned to the jury in a burst of eloquence: "In fact, gentlemen, who among you would have refused to take part in a robbery where it was a question of 40,000 francs!"

The apostrophe was perhaps unnecessary. Convictions are not easy. Except by those who have been immediately injured by him, the culprit is not generally looked on with severity, false testimony is had without difficulty, and the witness who insures conviction does so at the peril of his life. Cases are common where the witness has been afterwards murdered by the bandits or their accomplices. The vendetta, with subsequent retaliations, sometimes breeds between families a feud of extermination. Only the other day I read in the newspapers of a letter addressed to the public prosecutor by a well-known outlaw, who threatened new crimes if his wife and others, kept in confinement as accessories, were not at once released. Is this state of things, is this state of mind, sufficiently mediæval? The mountain fastnesses swarm with bandits, robbers, murderers, all fugitives from justice, and between the terror they inspire in some and the sympathy in others, their conviction, even if captured, is by no means a matter of course.

In some places, men who have accumulated some hundreds of thousands of francs by a long series of crimes are among the leaders of society, well spoken of, and looked up to by their neighbors. In cases of highway robbery, etc., the newspapers are apt to dwell upon the courage and address of the criminal with ill (or not at all) disguised admiration. One knows of lands where a woman who has stooped to folly, and tries to straighten matters with a revolver, is always described in the journals as graceful and fascinating. Nursed by such sympathy, neither evil is going to mend itself. The efficacious cure is the slow one of civilization; but meanwhile violence must be discouraged, life and property must be protected. Armed force has been tried more than once, and for the time being its efforts have been crowned with success. In the beginning of the last century, under the reign of Carlo Emanuele III., the Marquis di Rivarolo, with the aid of a few troops, hunted down the bandits with fire and sword, and with such energy and system that in 1737 there were none left in the island. Again, in 1749, the Chevalier Valguarnera pursued the same tactics; and later, again, the Marquis di Villamarina, it is said, thought it necessary to hang seven malefactors every day, and both achieved excellent results. But each period of severity was followed by one of laxity, and the accursed race cropped up again. In fact, the dark ages have from time immemorial reigned in the wild regions about Mount Gennargentu, and they reign there still. You can scarcely expect to make over the dark ages into the latter-day serenity of labor movements, socialism, populism, anarchism, and the like, merely by stringing up a few of the blacker sheep. Still, there is much to be said for the régime of repression, and it is a question whether this be not a moment for another Marquis di Rivarolo.

The Italian Government has asked itself this question—in the fashion of governments. It has sent the *onorevole* Pais, Deputy to the Italian Parliament from a Sardinian district, to inquire into the causes of the bad state of public security and to indicate the best means for its restoration. It has charged him at the same time "to study and report on the true economic conditions of Sardinia, and on whatever may concern its agricultural, industrial, and commercial movement."

It has been objected, and with a remarkable show of reason, that, from the days of the Depretis ministry to the present, no less than three similar inquests have been ordered by the Government; that, moreover, the prefects have constantly kept their superiors informed, and that their reports have been supplemented by a multitude of other sources of light, so that the ministry has already sufficient knowledge of the circumstances as well as ample indications of the measures to be employed; that, as a consequence, it is folly for an overburdened Treasury to waste money upon a new investigation.

It is further objected that, even were there occasion for this inquiry, Sig. Pais is not the man for conducting it. As a Deputy he was presumably chosen for his acquaintance with the wants of the country, is in constant relations with it, and could have given, without the delay of an extra journey, all that he is capable of seeing and the means he has to propose for the future action of the Government. Again, as a Sardinian, he can hardly hold himself aloof from the influence of friends, clients, and electors, from a thousand open or occult influences, all of which tend to prevent his taking a full, unbiassed view of the truth. Finally, one of the reasons why things in Sardinia do not go as they should is that the Deputies of the island, often unwittingly, are so many hindrances in the way of proper judgment and proper action on the part of the central authority.

For all that, Sig. Pais is already at work, and I see that he proposes that the Government should immediately begin a new series of public works in Sardinia. It is the sort of recommendation to be expected, not from Sig. Pais alone, but from almost any insular Deputy. It is the politician's substitute for the "faithful study of the liberal arts" which, in the language of the old Eton Latin grammar, "Emollit mores, nec sinit esse feros." The honorable gentleman has been but a short time on the ground, and it is not quite fair to look yet for results from his panacea. At any rate, the already mentioned letter from the bandit Sedda to the public prosecutor was written since the return to the island of Sig. Pais, and still later I read of a new descent of a band of shepherds upon a comrade whom they probably deemed too fortunate. They had already taken several sheep, when the watch-dogs roused their owner, who came out with a stick and felled dead the chief of the band. The others, instead of flying, fired upon him, but the fortunate proprietor was this time, at least, happy in that he escaped unharmed and ran to the carabinieri. The results of the affair are not yet known to me, but with such men and such manners the incident can hardly be considered as closed. Poor Sig. Pais, poor Government, poor Sardinia! Is it possible that 1895 has to look for its best teaching to 1737? S. K.

MEMOIRS OF THE DIRECTORY.—II.

PARIS, February 13, 1895.

THE début of the Directory was very modest. We have seen the five Directors make their entrance and their first arrangements in the Luxembourg. Some of these men are now quite

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forgotten. Larévellière gives his opinion of all of them, and is not over-indulgent towards his colleagues. He speaks first of Rewbell, who was, before the Revolution, a lawyer at Colmar, in Alsace, where he enjoyed much consideration. He was fifty years old when he was appointed Director. "He had an excellent head, profound judgment, and much cleverness; he was a great expert in all parts of the administration, from the highest diplomacy to the minutest practice at the bar. Few men, in respect to intellectual faculties as well as acquired knowledge, have possessed greater capacity for government." The portrait of Barras is not so flattering. Born of a noble family of Provence, he had first served in the army in India, till the French Governor, Bellecombe, had to capitulate in Pondicherry. He had a fine face, but no dignity, "and always preserved something of that common and bold air which is found in bad company." He had no application for work, only for intrigue. "Debauchery, gambling, the pleasures of the table, had perverted and dishonored his youth. . . . At the Luxembourg he was surrounded only by the most crapulous chiefs of anarchism, the most corrupt aristocrats, abandoned women, ruined men, jobbers, gamblers, mistresses, and favorites."

"I have heard him tell," continues our author, "as something very amusing, the arrangement which he made with the famous contractor, Ouvrard, whom he forced to take as his mistress *en titre* Mme. Tallien, his own mistress. Ouvrard did not wish to have anything to do with Mme. Tallien, but was obliged to keep her at least *ad honores*, and thus satisfy the expenses of such a devouring woman. Otherwise, he would have had to renounce in future any part in the army contracts, and he would have run the chance of being disturbed in the fortune which he had already acquired. And it was at Grosbois, in the house of Barras, a member of the Executive Directory of the French Republic, where a numerous company was assembled, that all the formalities of this infamous agreement were executed!"

Carnot is even more severely handled. A captain of engineers before the Revolution, he was elected a Deputy to the Legislative Assembly from the Pas-de-Calais. He remained obscure till he became in the Convention a member of the famous Committee of Public Safety, who really governed France during the Terror.

"He distinguished himself by the very important services which he rendered in the War Department. Happy would it have been for him if, during that time, he had refused to take part in the crimes of that committee, and if he had vigorously opposed the atrocious system which it followed. If we cannot forget the brilliant campaigns of which he is said to have traced the plans, can we remember without shuddering the numerous death-orders which he signed—he, the third signatory for so long a time—and his atrocious correspondence with Joseph Lebon [one of the proconsuls of the Convention]?"

The first ministers chosen by the Directory are now well forgotten—Trouvé, Bénézech, Merlin, Aubert du Bayet, Charles Delacroix, Truguet, Faypoult. The real work was done by the Directors themselves; they had to reorganize the armies, to reëstablish some order in the finances, to create new taxes, to defend themselves against factions, to organize a new police. The two councils were divided: on one side were the ancient Terrorists, on the other the men who were tired of the Revolution, the former members of the Gironde or of the Plain, who had in their ranks some eminent men. The Royalists were represented in the Legislative Council; they had some generals on their side, they had a number of influential papers. The Directory, placed between the Jacobins and the Royalists, was itself divided. Bonaparte was one of its supports; he had defended the Convention on the 13th Vendémiaire against the Royalists; he had been placed by the Directory at the head of the Army of Italy.

"People have said that his marriage with the widow of Beauharnais was the condition of his obtaining a command which was the object of his ardent wishes; it was not so. There was, to be sure, a very intimate alliance between Barras, Bonaparte, Fréron, Tallien, and Mme. de Beauharnais, Mme. Tallien, and others. This set had a double object, jobbing and pleasure. . . . What I can affirm is, that in making choice of Bonaparte for the Army of Italy the Directory was influenced by nobody. All the members of the Directory adopted the views presented by Gen. Bonaparte. We said he must be appointed, and he was appointed."

The glorious campaign in Italy gave to the Directory a singular ascendancy in Europe, though it continued to be very weak at home. Preliminaries of peace were signed at Leoben. During the negotiations, Napoleon received one day at Montebello a visit from a French savant, André Thouin.

"While they were taking their coffee together, after dinner, Bonaparte complimented him on his researches, and spoke like the sternest moralist of the misfortunes and horrors of war, the vanity of glory. Bonaparte left the room for a moment, after his homily, and Mme. Bonaparte said: 'Well, you have heard, Citizen Thouin, the fine speeches and fine sentiments of Bonaparte. Don't believe a word of it. He deceives himself as he does others, very fortunately. His is the most uneasy spirit, the most active head, the fullest of projects, the most ardent imagination, and the most obstinate will in the world.'"

Larévellière confesses having been long deceived by "the profound dissimulation" of Bonaparte. He felt that the Directory would soon have need of a general, not only on the Rhine and on the Po but on the Seine. There was a complete scission between Rewbell, Barras, and Larévellière, on one side, Carnot and Barthélemy on the other (Barthélemy had replaced Letourneur). Larévellière and Rewbell had no confidence in Barras, the unsafest of allies. Bonaparte was aware of these divisions; he sent one of his aides-de-camp, Lavalette, to keep him fully informed. The Directory, threatening or affecting to be threatened by the Royalists, asked Bonaparte, who could not or would not leave his army, to send one of his generals to Paris. Bonaparte chose Augereau. Larévellière, Rewbell, and Barras planned with him the *coup d'état* of the 18th Fructidor. Augereau was placed at the head of the military division in Paris. Talleyrand, who had come back to Paris, was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs. "At every instant, Rewbell and I were exchanging doubts. What was there not to be feared, in such circumstances, from an ignorant man like Augereau, and from a man without conscience like Barras?" At every moment they thought themselves betrayed.

On the evening of the 17th Fructidor the Directors resolved to strike the blow; in the middle of the night 12,000 men with 40 guns entered Paris, occupied the quays, the Hôtel de Ville, the Champs-Élysées, and enveloped the Tuileries. At six o'clock in the morning all was ended. The minorities of the Councils assembled, and with their permission the Directory condemned to deportation five Deputies, as well as the two Directors Barthélemy and Carnot. The laws against the émigrés were again put in force; the condemned Deputies were sent to Cayenne or to Oleron. Barthélemy fled to England, Carnot to Germany. They were replaced by Merlin de Douai and François de Neufchâteau.

The 18th Fructidor was the great event in the life of Larévellière. He takes a deal of pains to justify his *coup d'état;* there was no other way, in his opinion, to hinder a counter-revolution and the return of the monarchy. The majority of the two councils were in favor of a counter-revolution. Larévellière is proud of the 18th Fructidor. "But for me," he says, "it would never have taken place. . . . Without a third man of a conciliating spirit, and who had never belonged to any faction, Rewbell and Barras would never have worked together, and I had often much to do to keep them united." Must we believe him when he writes, "On the 18th Fructidor there was in Paris more than satisfaction, there was enthusiasm. My capacity as President and my speeches at the public sitting of the 10th Fructidor showed me to the public as the principal author of this *journée*." Mme. de Staël, in her 'Considérations sur la Révolution Française,' has not been lenient in judging the 18th Fructidor, which was a violation of the Constitution. "Qui veut la fin, veut les moyens," says Larévellière, and all constitutional means were, in his opinion, powerless to prevent the counter-revolution; which is an admission that the majority of the French people desired a change. The 18th Fructidor was a parody of the Terror; it was helped indirectly by Bonaparte, and was the preface to the 18th Brumaire.

Larévellière will be remembered in history only as one of the important actors in the *coup d'état* of Fructidor, unless also as one of the sectaries of a new religion which flourished a moment under the name of Theophilanthropy. He was not, as has sometimes been said, the founder of this sect; he says that the real founder of it was Valentin Haüy, brother of the famous mineralogist, and inventor of new methods of education for the blind. The dogmas of the new religion were of the simplest: the Theophilanthropists professed to believe in a God and in the existence of a soul—they were pure deists; but they made themselves ridiculous by having new forms of worship, and their number was always very insignificant.

"Patere legem quam fecisti," is an axiom which Larévellière never understood; he was destined to see a *coup d'état* which seemed to be almost copied after the 18th Fructidor. After the death of Kléber and Hoche, Bonaparte became the most prominent general in the French Army. His military glory had already eclipsed everything. The Directory had been weakened by the retirement of Rewbell, who had been eliminated by lot, and replaced by Sieyès, who affected the greatest apathy and indifference to all the affairs of the Republic. We come first to the crisis of Prairial, in the year vii. There was much agitation in the two Councils. Barras and Sieyès formed a coalition against the three other Directors. Sieyès urged Merlin de Douai and Larévellière to resign, Barras used the same entreaties; a deputation of the Councils also asked for their resignation. Larévellière resigned; he took his portfolio under his arm, and left for his little house in Andilly, near Montmorency. Talleyrand made him a visit there a few days afterwards; he told him that Sieyès had not succeeded in becoming master of the Directory; the new Directors were Gobier, Moulin, Roger-Ducos. The two Councils did not want a strong Directory.

Larévellière gives some details concerning not the 18th Brumaire, but the events which followed. The two Councils had been dissolved and replaced by a Committee, who prepared a new constitution. Sieyès framed it

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in its general outlines and Bonaparte corrected it.

"The Constitution, thus arranged at the instigation of the ambitious general, provided three consuls, appointed for three years—the first consul, who was everything, a second and a third consul, who were nothing. . . . When there was a question of choosing the four personages who should be proposed to the people for the functions of consuls and of president of the Senate, a ballot was to be taken. A model of a litre or a decalitre [it was the time of the invention of the metric system] exhibited in the room of the commission served as an urn. The ballots deposited were about to be counted. Bonaparte was before the chimney, his back turned to the fire. 'What is going on?' said he, with a certain air of superiority. 'You see, general, we are taking a ballot.' During this question and the answer, Bonaparte slowly approached the table, took the decalitre containing the ballots, threw them into the fire, and put it back on the table, saying on his way, 'That is all useless; we have here Citizen Sieyès, the one man in France who understands the Revolution best, and he is in position to appreciate with justice men and things. It is for him to indicate to us the men who are best fitted for the dignity of consul and for the presidency. Well, Citizen Sieyès, tell us whom we ought to name First Consul. . . .' Sieyès, after having tried to decline the honor, finally said: 'Everybody knows that Gen. Bonaparte is to be First Consul.' 'Well, citizens,' said he, 'put my name in the draft of the Constitution.' And it was done accordingly."

Sieyès afterwards chose Cambacérès and Lebrun; he was in this way obliged to exclude himself from the Consulate, and the Presidency of the Senate was left to him.

The public life of Larévellière came to an end in Prairial; he never was among the courtiers of Bonaparte, and lived in retirement. He was one of those men whom fortune brings for a moment on the stage of history in revolutionary times. His memoirs show him to have been very ordinary, very mediocre, possessed of inordinate vanity and a great incapacity for understanding even the events in which he played a part. His political essays, which form the third volume of the memoirs, might well have been left to oblivion.

Correspondence.

THE BOND BARGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Those who condemn President Cleveland's course in the recent bond issue mostly lose sight of the Government's real position in the matter. They forget that the Treasury was really buying gold in a market partially cornered, and merely giving our interest-bearing obligations in payment therefor. If the apparent discrepancy between what was obtained for the bonds and what should have been obtained be charged to premium on gold, the truth will be more nearly approximated.

It will be argued by some that there was no premium on gold at that time. Between individuals perhaps not. But the individual had the Government reserve to fall back upon. When it comes to replenishing that reserve, the Government is placed in the same relation to the gold supply as an individual would be if the reserve were wiped out. To say that there would be no premium on gold if the Treasury reserve should entirely disappear, would be a statement too absurd for argument.

We must also not lose sight of the large amount of gold required and the urgency of the situation, partly as justification for the premium paid, and partly as an apology for any seeming undue activity of the President in the matter. W. M. Haley.

St. Louis, February 22, 1895.

"PARLIAMENT-MAN."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *English Historical Review* for July, 1893, Mr. S. R. Gardiner wrote that the first instance he had noticed of the title "Member of Parliament," employed as the designation of any one person, was in 1650, though in 1642 it had been employed as a common designation of members of the two houses. He concluded that "unless an example can be produced of the use of the term of a member of one house only earlier than 1649, it may be inferred that the title originally given as a common designation for members of the two houses became the designation of one when, after the King's execution, the House of Commons declared itself to be the Parliament." The equivalent term, "Parliament man," is not mentioned by Mr. Gardiner; but it can be shown that this term, as applied both to a member of the House of Lords and to a member of the House of Commons, was frequently used during the first half of the seventeenth century.

"Sundry parliament men are dead since the last session, as Sir Thomas Atye, Sir Edward Stafford, . . . young Sir Henry Beaumont, &c., wherein your lordship may note, that it hath lighted most upon fat men. For lords I find none dead but the Lord Windsor."—1605, Sir E. Hoby, in *Court and Times of James I.* (1849), i., 35.

"We talk here as though the Earl of Southampton should refuse to answer the commissioners assigned, unless they accuse him of felony or treason, because he is a Parliament man; but I cannot hear much confirmation of it."—1621, J. Mead, in *do.*, ii., 265.

"Mr. Lyttleton so played his prize in the stating and arguing of our parliament-men's [Sir J. Eliot, etc.] case at the King's Bench Bar, on Friday, the first day of the term, that he hath won eternal praise."—1629, Sir G. Gresley, in *Court & Times of Charles I.* (1848), ii., 17.

"One Mr. Rigby, a lawyer and parliament man, wealthy and religious, had purchased the Plough Patent, lying at Sagadahock."—1643-'49, J. Winthrop, *Journal* (1790), 323.

"Sir, tidings are high from England; many ships from many parts say, and a Bristol ship, come to the Isle of Shoals within a few days, confirms, that the King and many great Lords and Parliament men are beheaded."—1649, Roger Williams, *Letters* (1874), 181.

This term, analogous to our Congressman, remained in vogue for another century, being found in the writings of Bishop Burnet, Chesterfield, Dryden, Evelyn, Bolingbroke, Farquhar, Fielding, Cotton Mather, Lady M. W. Montagu, Pepys, T. Randolph, Vanbrugh, and others; but after about 1750 it seems to have fallen into disuse. Albert Matthews.

Boston, February 1, 1895.

Notes.

The Life of George Borrow, on which Prof. W. I. Knapp of Chicago University has been long engaged, is likely to be published this year, says the London *Bookman*, in three volumes.

Archibald Constable & Co., London, will issue in May 'The Alps from End to End,' by W. Martin Conway. This is a narrative of climbing in three months of 1894, with some of Mr. Conway's Himalayan sepoys as assistants. There will be 100 illustrations.

J. B. Lippincott Co. of Philadelphia have in preparation the tenth volume of Mr. Horace Howard Furness's Variorum Edition of Shakspere, viz., "A Midsummer Night's Dream," and 'Lives of the Astronomers,' by Robert Ball.

Geo. P. Humphrey, Rochester, N. Y., will publish directly a reprint of Bartram's 'Observations' (London, 1751), adding thereto an inedited map of Oswego made by Lewis Evans, Bartram's companion on his American travels, and a view of Niagara Falls from the *Gentleman's Magazine*, 1751. The edition will be limited to 300 copies.

Ginn & Co., Boston, will bring out in April 'The Religions of India,' by Prof. Edward Washburn Hopkins of Bryn Mawr.

D. C. Heath & Co. have nearly ready 'The Educational Ideal: An Outline of its Growth in Modern Times,' by J. P. Munroe.

'Social Theology,' by the Rev. Wm. De Witt Hyde, President of Bowdoin College, 'In Stevenson's Land,' by Marie Fraser, and two books on Physical Geography by Prof. Ralph S. Tarr of Cornell, are in the press of Macmillan & Co. This house will hereafter act as publishers for the American Economic Association, and will carry its publications in stock.

J. Selwyn Tait & Sons announce 'On India's Frontier; or Nepal, the Gurka's Mysterious Land,' by Henry Ballantine, late American Consul to Bombay; 'The White Tsar, and Other Poems,' by Henry Bedlow, in an *édition de luxe;* and 'The Romance of Judge Ketchum,' by Horace A. Vachell.

In the reprint of 'Little Dorrit,' Macmillan & Co. choose not the first edition, as in the previous volumes of its popular reissue of Dickens, but that corrected by the author in 1869. The younger Dickens supplies the usual introduction, which is doubly enlivened by a good-natured examination of Mr. Forster's remarks on this novel, and by Dickens's reply to the owlish criticism of the *Edinburgh Review.* The series now numbers a round dozen volumes, if our count be true. Mr. Wheatley's edition of Pepys's Diary (Macmillan) is continued in a fifth volume, ending September 30 of the *annus mirabilis.* Pepys was persuaded that "this year of 1666 will be a year of great action" from a book he bought on February 19, 'An Interpretation of the Number 666.' The sea-fight with the Dutch and the great London fire are embraced in this volume, which has for its frontispiece Hayls's portrait of Mrs. Pepys, which her husband resolved on St. Valentine's Day to have painted. His own, painted shortly afterward, was given with volume i. The same firm sends us the first of its series of reprints of famous novels, containing Miss Edgeworth's 'Castle Rackrent' and 'The Absentee,' gracefully introduced by Mrs. Anne Thackeray Ritchie, with the aid of a personal visit to the Edgeworth home. The typography is handsome, and there are pen-drawn illustrations in the text, by Chris Hammond. Each story has a brief historic note respecting its composition and estimation.

Stone & Kimball, Chicago, have made a characteristically dainty volume of the late Robert Louis Stevenson's 'The Amateur Emigrant—From the Clyde to Sandy Hook.' The final chapter is a picture of New York from an unusual point of view.

There is an obvious convenience in having the lives of our Presidents packed in one volume. Those contained in 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography' have been thus grouped in 'The Presidents of the United States 1789-1894' (Appletons). The editor of the Cyclopædia, Gen. James Grant Wilson, has edited this collection also, supplementing the original sketches with notices and por-

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traits of wives and children, and furnishing a facsimile of each President's handwriting: Mr. John Fiske is the author of five of the twenty-three biographies, and no other writer contributes more than one. Generally an admirer or previous historian of the President in question has been sought, as Robert C. Winthrop (Washington), James Parton (Jefferson), D. C. Gilman (Monroe), George T. Curtis (Buchanan), John Hay (Lincoln), Horace Porter (Grant), Wm. Walter Phelps (Garfield), Wm. E. Russell (Cleveland). Sometimes the writer is an ex-office-holder, as George Bancroft (Polk), Carl Schurz (Hayes). Jefferson Davis writes of his father-in-law (Taylor). One of the very best is the late President Welling's (Van Buren), noticeable because of its compactness, though the author's style was naturally diffuse. The steel engravings of the Presidents are rather wooden.

The adoption of the new Constitution in this State naturally occasions a new and revised edition of Mr. Orlando Leach's 'State and Local Government of New York' (Leach, Shewell & Sanborn). Including now the text of the new organic law, it retains the convenient rubrics and the full index of former editions, which make it a volume both useful and handy.

The ninth, revised edition of Annesley's 'Standard Opera Glass' (B. Westermann & Co.) is a handy little volume of 350 pages, in large type, which opera-goers will find a convenience. It contains the plots of 115 operas, clearly told, with brief historic notes and comments on each one—Verdi's "Falstaff" among the number, as well as Humperdinck's fairy opera "Hänsel und Gretel," which is now the craze in Germany. It is, indeed, thoroughly up to date. But why should such operas as Grammann's "Ingrid," Förster's "Maiden of Schilda," Lindner's "Master-Thief," which never have been and never will be given outside of Germany, be described, while Rubinstein's "Nero," Wagner's "Fairies," Reyer's "Sigurd," and the operas of Saint-Saëns, Smetana, and Tchaikovsky are omitted? Taken all in all, however, the list is judiciously made. The opinions advanced, too, can be generally approved, although there is an occasional absurdity, like the statement that Wagner's "Meistersinger" "is highly original, though not precisely melodious"; or this, that "Verdi is far beneath his celebrated predecessors, Rossini and Bellini."

The J. B. Millet Company, Boston, have followed up their 'Famous Composers' with 'Half Hours with the Best Composers,' which consists solely of pieces for the piano selected from the whole range of musical literature. The editor is Mr. Karl Klauser, of whom Mr. Theodore Thomas says, in a preface, that he does not know any man so well qualified to edit such a work. A catholic taste is evinced in the selections, which range from drawing-room music to the various representatives of the classic and romantic schools. A unique feature is the inclusion in each volume of a piece (with biographic sketch and portrait) by an American composer, from a list worth repeating here: William Mason, Reginald de Koven, Walter Damrosch, Richard Hoffman, Frank Van der Stucken, Henry Holden Huss, Dudley Buck, William W. Gilchrist, Emil Liebling, John Knowles Paine, Arthur Foote, E. A. Macdowell, Geo. W. Chadwick, Clayton Johns, Ethelbert Nevin, Benj. E. Woolf, Arthur Bird, Ad. M. Foerster. The Millet Company have also established a Composers' Bureau for revising musical manuscripts or finding a market for them.

From Mills & Thompson, Boston, we have Mr. J. F. Botume's 'Exercises in Vocal Technique,' sixty pages of exercises so arranged as to be suitable for all voices, with a preliminary chapter conveying much sound advice. Mr. Botume is not one of the charlatans who come out every week with a new method, but bases his remarks on the common experiences of great teachers, from Caccini to the present day.

Mr. Charles A. Houfe, headmaster of Aysgarth School, Yorkshire, has lifted out of a contemplated work on 'The Premiership, the Houses and the Crown' 130 pages on 'The Question of the Houses' (London: A. Constable), which he now offers as a contribution to the great political issue of the day in Great Britain. Writing as an ardent Liberal-Unionist, he yet admits the need of doing something to prevent the scandal of the Lords exemplifying the theory of a conservative check on hasty legislation only in the case of laws passed by one party. His remedy is to compel an immediate referendum on all bills thrown out by the Lords. Mr. Houfe has many ungentle things to say of American institutions, and is amazed at the ignorance of American writers. His book invites serious retort in kind; but a production so academic, in both senses of the word, hardly deserves it.

The qualities that mark the work of M. Victor Duruy, whose death France, and not France alone, now laments, are too widely known to make it necessary to do more than mention the appearance of his 'History of Modern Times, from the fall of Constantinople to the French Revolution' (Henry Holt & Co.), translated by Prof. Grosvenor of Amherst College, making, with Prof. Adam's translation of the same author's 'Middle Ages,' a work desirable in all colleges and libraries. We have here again the mastery of material; the perception that there is a story to tell, joined with the power of telling it; the breadth of view; the unaffected, natural interest in the affairs and achievements of all nations and races, regarding all with an equality of sympathy in spite of the differing values of their contributions to the development of mankind, removed at once from the traditional English attitude toward extra-insular peoples, so suggestive of studies in comparative psychology, and from that of the Germans, so bent upon accurate reproduction and evaluation of the past that they get up flashlight views at last, with all the delicacy as well as the life of it lost in the process. The translation reads easily and bears traces of close adherence to the original, but it has the defect of this virtue in an over-close following of form—that common fault which has deluded so many people, familiar only with their vernacular, into the belief that they understood the chief characteristics of foreign styles.

Prof. Emerton's 'Mediæval Europe (814-1300)' (Ginn & Co.) is a useful manual, although subject to the inevitable limitations of an attempt to achieve the impossible by compressing within the compass of 600 duodecimo pages the political, religious, and intellectual history of Europe during the five centuries which laid the basis of modern civilization. The resources of the most universal scholar might well be severely tested in the accomplishment of such a task, and even he would find them insufficient without an instinct of historical perspective serving as an infallible guide in the selection and rejection of details. In this Prof. Emerton has been reasonably successful, though in some chapters one may feel that there is a somewhat confused crowding of facts, and in others that a convenient vagueness covers the lack of a firm and assured familiarity with the sources of knowledge. It would perhaps be too much to expect that in treating a theme so vast, a writer should draw only on the results of original research, but when we see the predecessor of Charles the Simple spoken of (p. 90) as Otto of Paris and (p. 154) as Eudes of Paris, we are perhaps justified in inferring that in the one case the author has followed a German and in the other a French authority, without having grounded himself on contemporary documents. The book is a good one for the object designed, and will serve a very useful purpose in the class-room, but the lists of authorities which accompany each chapter leave much to be desired with regard to the needs of students who desire to pursue the subject further.

A new treatise on Meteorology, by Thos. Russell, lately professor in the Weather Bureau, and now assistant U. S. engineer, is just published by Macmillan. It gives a general account of meteorological instruments, and of the distribution of temperature, the movement of the winds, the occurrence of storms, and other meteorological phenomena, but in an expository rather than an explanatory style. The more notable features of the book are its chapters on weather and flood prediction. Prof. Russell, having paid especial attention to these matters while in the Weather Bureau, now gives the fullest account of the methods employed that is to be found in our language. While the prediction of the weather is based on simple principles, the application of these principles to the endless variety of weather forms presented on the daily maps is shown to be a matter of great difficulty, not reducible to brief or elementary statement, and requiring serious and persevering study before reaching practical usefulness. The prediction of the time and amount of rise in river-floods is fully explained, following the methods employed in France. The accuracy of many of these predictions is remarkable. The volume is illustrated with a number of weather-charts and figures of instruments.

An economic and geologic map of the State of New York, showing the location of its mineral deposits, has lately been issued by Mr. F. J. H. Merrill, director of the State Museum at Albany. It is reproduced from an original map prepared for the Chicago Exhibition, and now given wider use by publication. Twenty color divisions indicate the succession of formations from the ancient crystalline rocks to the glacial clays and gravels. Besides these, there are seventeen over-printed signs, marking the location of quarries, mines, clay-pits, oil-fields, and so on, in much detail. The distribution of valuable geological products according to the sequence of geological formations is nicely illustrated, and makes the map of value for local school use. The scale of the map is about twelve miles to an inch.

The publications of the New York State Weather Service under the direction of Prof. E. A. Fuertes of Cornell University have been, both as monthly bulletins and annual reports, maintained in excellent form for several years past. They form a valuable fund of information of current value, as well as an accumulation of trustworthy climatic summaries. The records of the bureau at Ithaca are frequently referred to by engineers, boards of health, chambers of commerce, and others. It can only be an extreme application of the penny-wise, pound-foolish principle that calls for the abolition of such a service, although this has been recently recommended by a committee of the State Legislature.

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We welcome a second edition, revised and enlarged, of Miss Hewins's 'Boys' and Girls' Books in the Hartford Public Library'—one more representative of a class of library guides which ought to be found in every library as well as in the one from which it emanates. The index should, we think, be converted into a table of (the classified) contents—in other words, placed at the beginning instead of at the end; and such a title as 'Amusements' might well be analyzed.

The American edition of the *Bookman* (Dodd, Mead & Co.) begins with the February issue. It abandons the generous form of the English periodical, and ranges itself in appearance and almost in bulk among our foremost literary magazines, with which it competes on one side with articles like Mr. Mabie's on "Books and Culture," or Prof. Boyesen's on "German and Scandinavian Literature in 1894" (both first papers), or Mrs. Hinkson's Reminiscences of Christina Rossetti. On another side its gossip marches with the *Critic's*. It has the pictorial features of its original, with an increase. Its book reviews are partly signed, partly anonymous. It has a poetry column or section. We observe that it has, in its News Notes, fallen into the same error as the *Tribune* of February 10, which announced: "Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' cannot be purchased in Russia, the censor being very careful to keep so splendid a lesson in republicanism out of the hands of his countrymen." But the fact is that the work was translated and published there, in 1889 and 1890, in three volumes, the edition consisting of 1,200 copies.

M. A. Cartault, in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for January 15, writes thoughtfully of Virgil's evolution, from the Bucolics to the Georgics. That the former mark a tentative period—the poet seeking his vocation; that Virgil imitates, not from poverty, but from choice, purposely setting what is his own against the very pick of Alexandrine work; that in the Georgics he is, as in the Bucolics, the one poet of true love—with all this we agree. But that he was already in the Bucolics the great master of the Georgics, we cannot admit. Beautiful as they are, the Bucolics are mere "academic figures" to the masterwork. Again, M. Cartault errs in giving Virgil a nature too open to external impulsions. Virgil spontaneously joined a band of writers who, judging the Republic to be dead, saw the world's hope in Octavian's rule, gladly lent it the prestige of their genius, but would not be mere trumpets of his fame. Virgil, like Horace, was asked to sing Octavian's exploits—in vain. But he gave the Georgics, a pledge of restored peace and a guide to quietness and respect for the gods, and the 'Æneid,' a poem second only to the 'Iliad' as a nationalizing force, and destined to be one of the most potent factors in holding together for many ages an empire profoundly disintegrated and ready to crumble into fragments.

At the session of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres held on January 25, M. Michel Bréal communicated a Latin inscription recently found in Tunis, which is remarkable both for its historical contents and for some linguistic peculiarities. This inscription was found at Kourba, not far from the city of Tunis, by Capt. Lachouque, of the geographical service of the French army. It is of the year 49 B. C., and recalls one of the most dramatic epochs of Roman history. The personages named in it have been made familiar by Cicero, Lucan, Appian, and especially by Cæsar, who speaks of them at length. It refers to the putting into a state of defence of Curubis (now Kourba) at a time when it was in the hands of Pompey's followers, and when they were expecting an attack from a force landed from Cæsar's fleet. The inscription gives a quite new military term, *posteicus*, a word hitherto unknown. It means either some military work of inside fortification, or else a sally-port, a postern. At the same session of the Academy, M. Dieulafoy, the well-known explorer, was elected to membership.

—A first-rate treatise on Milton's prosody would be received with acclamation, but to carry it through would require a scholar of rare attainments. Besides commanding the large and bewilderingly miscellaneous "literature" of English metric, he would need a good knowledge of metrical doctrines in general and in particular of Greek, Latin, and Italian versification. It is superfluous to add that he ought to possess a good ear for rhythm, a fancy at once alert and well bridled, and the ability, if he is a musician, to remember that poetry and music, though closely allied, are not identical. With all this, he should be minutely familiar with the vocabulary and forms of sixteenth and seventeenth-century English, and should have the literature of those periods well in hand. Finally, he could not get along without some knowledge of phonetics. For such a treatise as a scholar of these proportions might prepare we have doubtless long to wait. Meantime Mr. Robert Bridges has drawn up a handy manual called 'Milton's Prosody' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) which is not without its uses. Mr. Bridges rates his qualifications very modestly, and, in truth, he is far from well acquainted with several indispensable matters. He has made no extensive study of the work done by his predecessors in the history and the theory of English metre; his material is incomplete; he has curious notions of phonetics, or at least of the proper way in which to state simple phonetic facts; he is not quite skilful as an expositor. But he has done conscientious work, so far as it goes, and he has brought out some facts of real consequence. Teachers and students will find his book useful, but none of them, we hope, will take it as gospel. Any who may be so inclined should turn at once to the section on "inversions," and see what they can make of "Which of us who beholds the bright surface" as there scanned with an ictus on *sur-*. "A very beautiful inversion," Mr. Bridges calls it. We must disagree with him.

—Dr. Moore, whose edition of the entire text of Dante we lately noticed, gave the first of four lectures upon the 'Purgatorio' at the Taylorian Institute in Oxford, on February 5. His chief topic was the consistent view of expiation and purgation—under the influence of warning and inspiring examples, with the aid of the promises in Holy Writ, and by recourse to the offices of the Church breviary—embodied by Dante in the seventeen cantos (x–xxvii.) which describe the seven ledges of the mountain of purgation, upon each one of which is expiated one of the seven deadly sins. The dictum of the ancients that virtue is simple and vice is manifold is illustrated in the case of Pride and Humility, for on the first ledge of Purgatory eleven representations of punished pride are pictured on the horizontal pathway where the expiating souls are walking, while only three scenes of exemplary humility are sculptured on the perpendicular face of the mountain. An intended balancing and a careful classification of the warning examples is indicated by the curious repetition of certain words at the beginning of lines 25–63 in the twelfth canto. Here the *Vedeva* beginning lines 28 and 61 should be corrected from the MSS. to *Vedea*. "Blessed are the poor in spirit" is the promise kept before the sinners on this first *girone*, and the office of the Church to which they have recourse is the Lord's Prayer. The second *girone*, where Envy is purged, has no sculptures or pictures; the rock is smooth and of the same leaden hue that covers and envelops the sinners there. Examples of charity come to them in gentle murmurs from the upper air, and a warning voice cleaving the sky like a lightning-flash or rending it as a thunderclap tells of punishment. The promise for them is implied in the text "Love them which despitefully use you," and is, "Blessed are ye when men shall revile you"; their office is the Litany of the Virgin and all the Saints. On the third *girone* the examples of mansuetude and the instances of punished anger visit the soul interiorly; they are apprehended in an ecstatic vision or momentary trance. The promise here is, "Blessed are the peacemakers," and the office of the Church is the *Agnus dei . . . dona nobis pacem*. For those on the fourth ledge, who expiate the sin of spiritual sloth (ἀκηδεια), there is no office of the Church breviary. The nature of their sin forbids it, since it has involved neglect of the church services, and the form of their expiation makes it impossible; but they have their promise in "Blessed are they that mourn," and on this *girone* two spirits in front recount improving examples of virtue, while the warning instances of *accidia* come from two laggards at the rear. Scartazzini fails to identify the Church office assigned on the seventh ledge for the expiation of lust, only because Dante uses the old form of the hymn sung on Saturday at matins and beginning *Summæ Deus clementiæ*. In the altered modern breviary, *Deus* has been changed to *parens*. Various other alterations from the more rugged and uncompromising version alone current in Dante's time have been made in this particular hymn.

—The new novel by Alphonse Daudet, 'La Petite Paroisse' (Paris: Lemerre; New York: Brentanos, Christern, Meyer Bros.), shows the same exquisite feeling and touch as the earlier works of the master, with little diminution of strength. The artist still enjoys his powers of vision and expression; the analyst retains his skill and precision; the story-teller still has the charm and attraction of old. What is perhaps more marked is the profound sympathy of Daudet for all suffering and the intense desire he feels to raise and brighten. He is an optimist in 'La Petite Paroisse,' and his kindly touch gives even Charlexis and the old duke redeeming features here and there. The book recalls 'Mme. Bovary' in some respects. The two heroines have much in common at first; Daudet's does not sink as low, and is finally restored and pardoned. The two husbands are not unlike, but Daudet makes his rage with jealousy and suffer till cured—a stronger man in some respects, yet not so pathetic a figure as Flaubert's. The book also recalls the plays of Dumas *fils*, and the terrible conclusion to which that inflexibly logical writer comes in the discussion of the punishment of the guilty wife. But Daudet's whole book breathes the spirit of forgiveness and peace, of tender mercy and uplifting grace, and in so much is more strengthening and elevating than all the younger Dumas's brilliant work. The story is a simple one, the fall and redemp-

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tion of a married woman, tyrannized over by a despotic, narrow-minded mother-in-law. It is told with all the wondrous grace and poetry which are Daudet's special gifts, in that sunny French of which he possesses the secret, full of delicate suggestiveness of tint and color. No more than 'Mme. Bovary' does it make sin alluring, but it lacks, happily, the cruel impassibility and bitter vividness of Flaubert's famous book.

—The death of Francis II., sometime King of Naples, gave a fine occasion to the Parisian interviewer to pay a visit to M. Daudet. It recalled the 'Rois en exil,' since the protagonist of that admirable novel, Christian II. of Illyria, has been generally supposed to be not much more than Francis in a light disguise. The resemblance was less close than that, Daudet says. Francis served him in a general way as a model, but the figure of Christian was very far from being a portrait. It was in this case as in Daudet's other books. He does not attempt historical romance, but, on the other hand, he invents nothing. He takes his material, he says, where he finds it, a bit here and a bit there, and constructs his personages by a process of synthesis. This perhaps the acute reader has before now divined. In the case of the 'Rois en exil,' he set out to paint the fashion of a world that was passing away—perhaps it is quite gone since he wrote—the world of a court that surrounded with middle-age etiquette the throne of an anointed king. His task was to watch the clash of these old fashions with the freer ways of modern life. For this he wanted a king much less austere than Francis was, and he found him in a Spanish prince whose acquaintance with both worlds in Paris was exhaustive. From him he drew the escapades of Christian. From the life of Francis came the scene of the offer of money in exchange for an abdication of the throne, and also the episode of the siege of Ragusa, which is merely the story of the siege of Gaeta, where Francis and his queen were shut in. The original of Frédérique was a princess of Hanover. Élysée Méraut alone was drawn from the life. He really lived, and Daudet knew him years ago when he was a light of the Quartier Latin. His reputation as a student gained him the place of tutor to an Austrian prince, and he went, very young, to Vienna. There the sight of the decadence of a royal race, and of the principle of the royal divine right, in which he had been a passionate, blind believer, soon disgusted him, and he came back, disillusioned, to die in Paris. Élysée Méraut is the one figure in the 'Rois en exil' who truly lives and breathes; and it might be worth while to read the novel over again, in the light of Daudet's interview, with an eye to determining whether the other personages of the drama do not possess life in direct proportion as they are true to fact.

—The completed first volume of the *Euphorion*, "Zeitschrift für Literaturgeschichte" (Bamberg: Buchner), edited by Prof. Sauer of Prague University, fully justifies the hopeful view of this undertaking expressed by us after the appearance of the first number. The new review is a decided improvement upon its two predecessors, the *Vierteljahrschrift* and the *Archiv für Literaturgeschichte*, being much more comprehensive than the former and less given to mere antiquarianism than the latter. It is indeed the first noteworthy attempt at creating a thoroughly scientific organ for the study of modern German literature in its broadest aspect, *i. e.*, in connection with the whole of national development, with the leading movements in politics and society, in religion and philosophy, in music and the fine arts. The list of contributors to the first volume includes such names as Jakob Minor, Bernhard Seuffert, Erich Schmidt, Woldemar von Biedermann, Ludwig Geiger, Anton E. Schönbach, Reinhold Steig. The variety of its contents may be indicated by the fact that by the side of an article on Goethe as a scientist there is an æsthetic analysis of Schiller's "Maid of Orleans," while an essay on "Eduard Mörike and Politics" is followed by an exposition of the part taken by Herder in Lavater's 'Physiognomik,' a philological study on the figurative expression in Bismarck's letters, a disquisition upon the influence exerted by Thorwaldsen on Hebbel's artistic views, a biographical note on Klopstock's acquaintance with the composer Gluck, etc. A large space is devoted to uncommonly judicious reviews of all the more important publications on German literature of recent years, to an exhaustive bibliography, and to reports on periodical or other contributions to this field of study outside of Germany. The American report, written by Dr. Max Poll of Harvard and Prof. W. H. Rosenstengel of the University of Wisconsin, is, if we are not mistaken, the first attempt of this kind made in this country. To judge from this volume, the *Euphorion* will be an absolutely indispensable reference work for students of German literature, and no college library should be without it.

—A very serious drawback to a young man who has only a limited income and wishes to pursue his studies in north Germany or Austria, is the heavy income and communal taxes to which he is subjected. This system of extortion is rigorously applied, and often renders it quite impossible for a student who goes abroad on a small stipend or travelling fellowship to remain in Vienna, Berlin, Leipzig, Göttingen, or in any university north of the Main. It does not seem to be generally known that Bavaria pursues in this respect a more liberal and enlightened policy. About fifteen years ago a bill was introduced into the Bavarian Parliament proposing to imitate the north German States in compelling all foreign residents to pay taxes; but the project was vigorously and almost unanimously opposed by the press, and finally abandoned. The result has been that the rapid increase of the number of foreign residents in Munich has greatly promoted the prosperity of that city, while Berlin tradesmen are loudly lamenting the loss of English, and especially of American, customers, and wondering what has become of them. The fact that the lectures at the University of Munich were attended during the last semester by 3,798 persons and those at the University of Leipzig by only 2,862 is due in part at least to the same cause. It has frequently happened that graduates of American collegiate institutions have gone to Germany with the intention of pursuing special studies at Berlin and Leipzig, but, on receiving a visit from the tax commissioners, have wisely concluded to settle in Munich, where they found the advantages of instruction equally great and the drain upon their usually light purses far less.

—Those interested in postgraduate study at large will follow with interest the present deliberations of "Congregation" at Oxford (Congregation consists substantially of the 436 Masters of Arts in residence). Having committed itself some time ago to the principle of awarding degrees for research, Congregation on February 12 rejected, by a vote of 147 to 33, a group of amendments to the form of statute laid before them by a committee appointed for that purpose. These rejected amendments would have had the effect of making the proposed degrees not postgraduate, but undergraduate, since they expunged the clauses in the statute instituting the new degrees of *B. Litt.* and *B.Sc.*, and provided that the candidates under the new rules should receive the ordinary B.A. The statute under consideration admits to candidature any person not under the age of twenty-one who has taken the Oxford B.A., or has given evidence of having received a good general education. He must further have shown his fitness to enter on a course of special study or research, and have proved that his proposed course of study may be profitably pursued within the University. This admits any one holding an approved B.A. without absolutely requiring a B.A. An amendment was rejected, by a vote of 107 to 39, which required either the Oxford or some other B.A. or equivalent degree. The reasons which weighed here were that military men and others who would not naturally hold any degree would be suitable candidates, more especially in science. Upwards of forty amendments remain still to be accepted or rejected.

A PERIODICAL DICTIONARY.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Edited by Dr. James A. H. Murray. Vol. III., (1) D-Deceit, (2) Deceit-Deject. By Dr. Murray. Vol. IV., (1) F-Fang. By Henry Bradley. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1894, 1895.

ALL must approve the issuing of thinner sections of this great work at quarterly intervals. There is a natural impatience at the inevitably slow progress, and a desire to profit as soon as possible by what leaves the press. Unlike the serial of fiction, this has the advantage of being able to break off anywhere without forfeiting its welcome. Dr. Murray, it will be remembered, in beginning volume three, has but a gap to fill, since the second half (letter E) has already been completed by Mr. Bradley, who now pushes on in letter F and volume four, taking G also for his province, but, like a true Englishman, dropping his H—to Dr. Murray. One feels, we think, the personality of these two co-workers even while pursuing an identical method; but in our remarks we shall not attempt to separate them.

Noticeable for fulness are the articles *day*, *dead*, *face*, and *fall*, for which last, with its hundred shades, a phrase-key is provided. Etymology is baffled in the case of *damp*, whose history before 1480 is unknown, *dandle* (1530), *dandruff* (1545), *dandy* (1780), *dank* (1400), *darn*, 'to mend' (1600), *debauch*, *fad*, a dialectic form of recent adoption (1834), *fake*, used by Maginn in *Blackwood* in 1827. On the other hand, we trace *darkle* to Byron (1819); *Black Death* to Elizabeth Penrose (Mrs. Markham), who apparently introduced this name for the Great Pestilence that devastated Europe in the middle of the fourteenth century, into her History of England (1823); *decephalization* to J. D. Dana (1863); *decidua* to Hunter (1785). By the chance of reading for the Dictionary, *dander* first turns up in Haliburton's 'Sam Slick' (1837), *to take a dare* decidedly belated in Richard Harding Davis's 'Van Bibber' (1892), *darkey*, also (probably) behind time, in Dana's 'Two Years before the Mast' (1840), and *deer-lick* certainly so (1876)—

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a conspicuous instance of inattention on the part of Dr. Murray's American readers. Other appearances worth noting are *daily*, the substantive for 'newspaper' (1858), *Darwinian*, referring to Erasmus D. (1804), *Davy Jones* (1751, in Smollett), *deadbeat* (1877), *deadhead* (1853, Lowell cited), *decentralization* (1846), *deforest*, in the modern sense (1880), *fair*, meaning 'tolerable' (1795, in Burke, seemingly; but the next instance is from Tyndall, 1860). *Defalcation* is first detected in Worcester's Dictionary (ed. 1846), and does not occur in Craig's (1847)—though, as the French statesman said of "job," that France hadn't the word, but Heaven knew she had the thing, so defalcations were not unknown in England before the middle of the present century. The earliest quotation for *Dago* (Spaniard, Portuguese, Italian, Spanish American) is 1888, and it is only by way of curiosity that we cull from Pickard's Life of Whittier (i., 395) these lines cited by James T. Fields in a letter to the poet (March 1, 1857):

"And he shall say a good word for him,
Igo and ago,
Else may Old Nick to shoe-strings chew him,
Iram, coram, dago."

Joel Barlow, in his 'Columbiad,' gave currency to *Fabian* in the sense of 'cunctatory,' and we are told that the latter day Fabian Society (1884) derives its name from its gradual method as opposed to immediate revolution. An English writer finds *Falstaffian* convenient no earlier than 1808; two other quotations, both American, are dated 1856 and 1880.

Greville borrowed *décolleté* from the French in 1831, in a passage which now reads queerly: "The Queen is a prude, and will not let the ladies come *décolletées* to her parties." He italicized it as a foreign word, but in 1848 Thackeray apparently used it as completely naturalized, in 'Vanity Fair.' In 1884 the *Westminster Daily Press* is cited as dropping the accent of the first *é* (decolleté). This may have been a mere carelessness at any one of three points along the line—of the writer in the *Press*, the reader for the Dictionary, or, finally, the printer; but it is interesting to notice that *debris* is placed before *débris* as the spelling of preferred usage, with choice of pronunciation debbree', day'bree, or deb'bree. Similarly, we find "*debacle*. . . . Also *débâcle*," but with an English pronunciation solely, dibbah'kl. *Faineance*, again, comes full-fledged English into Kingsley's 'Hypatia' without an accent, and with no nasality in the last syllable—like *faineancy* in Thoreau and Goldwin Smith; whereas *fainéant* (with the French pronunciation) has a divided usage not recognized in the rubric—Sir D. Carleton in 1619 writing *faineants*, Liddell in 1855 *fainéans*, Milman in the same year *fainéant*, and Pattison in 1868 *faineant*. With *faineantise* we observe the same diversity. There seems to be some ground for a generalization to the effect that scientists incline to naturalize French words by dropping the accent. Thus, the sole quotation from such a source under *ampère* has *ampere* (pron. either as in French or ăm-pair'); Playfair in 1802 and Buckland in 1823 write *debacle*; Playfair (1802), Wilson (1851), and Geikie (1858) write *debris*, Murchison alone using the French form, as French. We may notice here the fact that *daguerreotype* appears from the start as a word of four syllables, the second *e* being silent; the *Athenæum*, indeed, of January 26, 1839, spoke of "the newly invented machine which is to be called the Daguerotype." The French, however, write *daguerréotype*, and those whose memories go back to the early days of this process in the United States will recall a not uncommon trace of the accented letter in a five-syllable pronunciation (-e-o-type.) Our spelling-reformers, by the way, often retort that our deformed orthography in certain cases suggests a false etymology; but how would they deal with words like *ampere* and *daguerreotype* without destroying all visible trace of the proper names historically honored in these vocables?

While on the subject of phonetics we remark that *dais*, which "died out in English about 1600, but was retained in Scotch in sense [of 'bench,' 'settle']," is, as in French, always a monosyllable "in English where retained as a living word; the dissyllabic pronunciation is a 'shot' at the word from the spelling." In this country it can but seldom be heard, though often enough met with in writing; our own experience would lead us to think the dissyllabic pronunciation the prevalent one. Where popular education is general and population scattered, there will always be "shots from the spelling." This more than anything else, perhaps, tends to differentiate our American speech from the English. Dawnt is Dr. Murray's only recognized pronunciation for *daunt*, and it may well be the most common in America, particularly at the West, where one even hears dănt; but we should say that dahnt was the rule with people of culture at the East. *Decō'rous* (or *dĕ'corous*), we are told, is not very frequent colloquially in England, and the same holds good with us. In *decrescendo*, as in *crescendo*, *sc* is given solely the sound of *sh*, in the Italian fashion; we should think it hardly the rule in this country even among the cultivated, and for poetic use the *ss* of the standard English pronunciation of Latin seems the more desirable. In England, *falcon* preferably has the *l* sounded, and it appears singular that this should not hold with *falconer* (faw'koner or faw'kner only).

If we turn now to definitions, we notice that our winged (devil's-) *darning-needle* is lost sight of under that word, though we may look to find it under *devil*. For *dalles* we regret that this note by Dr. Elliott Coues, in his edition of Lewis & Clark (iii., 954 *n*), was not available. He is speaking of the famous gorge of the Columbia River, but the term is generic in the Far West:

"As a word, 'dalles' is a French plural, the English of which is flagstones, such as we lay down for a sidewalk along a street. One may even hear of 'those dalles,' *i. e.*, flat rocks in the river serving for stepping-stones. 'Dalles' are also the characteristic and celebrated columnar basaltic rock-formations through which the river passes for many miles. 'Dalles' are likewise the course of the river through such formations, and the river itself during such courses, *i. e.*, the river runs through 'dalles,' and is 'dalles' in running through them. In this sense there are various 'dalles' on the Columbia; the Cascades are 'dalles,' etc."

None of the definitions of *dead-lift*, unless it be 'sheer lift,' covers our familiar sense of a lift of a dead-weight, without any advantage of momentum or leverage. *Deadline* is too restrictedly defined as a line drawn *around* a military prison, as the citation from Lossing shows: "Seventeen feet from the *inner* stockade was the 'deadline.'" Under *facetiæ* we discover no allusion to booksellers' euphemistic employment of the word in their catalogues as a classification for pornographic literature. Purists who grudge the English language a synonym for trustworthy, will be pained to meet this under *faithful*: "also, of things: Reliable." The same class, who from time to time inveigh against the absurdity of the phrase "to a degree," meaning 'to an undefined, but considerable or serious, extent; extremely, seriously,' may learn that it goes back to 1721, and was handed down by Sheridan (1775) and Carlyle (1865).

It remains to say a few words about the illustrative examples. Milton's "sad occasion dear" is duly appealed to for the second sense of *dear*, now wholly archaic, of 'hard, severe, heavy, grievous, fell, dire'; but we search in vain for the line from the same poem, "Fame is the spur," under *fame*, nor do we discover any niche of definition for "to my *fancied* sight" in Milton's sonnet to his dead wife. We miss, under *fancy*, Emerson's "Fancy departs, no more invent"—a real definition. Under the plural of *decay*, we wish for Lowell's line in his sonnet to Jeffries Wyman, "That such a man could spring from our decays"; under *dedicate*, for Lincoln's marked use of the word in his Gettysburg address. But these last are again our own American shortcomings as readers for Dr. Murray.

MASTERPIECES OF GREEK SCULPTURE.—II.

Masterpieces of Greek Sculpture: A Series of Essays on the History of Art. By Adolph Furtwängler. Edited by Eugénie Sellers, with 19 full-page plates and 200 text illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

It is necessary to explain more in detail what ascriptions the author makes, what restorations he proposes, and what bringing together of separate and far-distant fragments he has accomplished. Supreme in interest is no doubt the famous statue of the Louvre. This statue, found in the island of Melos in a niche, and accompanied by smaller pieces of sculpture, was brought to Paris during the reign of Louis XVIII. and set up in the Louvre. Its base being broken, one part of it, which bore an ascription, soon disappeared. The work before us gives as a sufficient reason for the disappearance the desire of the custodians of the Louvre, in the ignorant days before 1825, to claim Praxiteles or some other giant of renown as the author. Both arms are broken off. A very large number of proposed restorations have been made. It has been thought that the statue was that of a Muse playing on the lyre, of a Victory holding a shield on which she was writing, of a Venus looking at herself in a mirror held in the right hand and raising the left hand to the hair, of a Venus grouped with Mars, of a Venus grouped with Cupid. Perhaps thirty different proposals, all from sufficiently well-reputed artists and archæologists, might be brought together. The work before us establishes at length the originality of the inscribed part of the plinth; it also shows that the small square hole in the lost piece of the plinth, which is shown in Debay's drawing, probably received a pillar; it maintains that the left arm was raised, though not quite to the level of the shoulder, and that the hand was turned with the palm upward. There results a restoration shown on page 380, which we have described above. The inquiry is then carried on to the original type which the Melos statue reproduces, and it is found that the present statue is based upon a pure Greek type similar to that of the Aphrodite of Capua at Naples, which type is assumed to be a Skopasian type, but modified by reference to the statues of Tyche, or Deity of Good Fortune, of the island of Melos. As the whole argument fills thirty-three pages, we cannot analyze it here. It will excite the angry incredulity of those who wish

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to think their favorite statue an unmatched original work. To those who are aware that the sculpturesque quality remains the same, whatever the subject may be and whencesoever it may be derived, this inquiry cannot cause annoyance, nor its result disappointment. No sculptor, in his loving study of this masterpiece of his art, will vex himself by any reference to the archæologist's discovery, or supposed discovery, of the mixed origin of its type. "Macbeth" is what it is, no matter where its author found the legend upon which it is based.

A somewhat similar inquiry is set on foot in the case of the Apollo of the Belvedere. The book before us states truly that, from the time of the suggestion that what the god had held in his left hand was (not a bow, as the people thought in the days of Lord Byron, but) an ægis, this theory has been the favored one. Being new and rather surprising, it was pleasant to believe; and it was probable enough to please the archæologists. In part this theory was based upon the bronze statuette at St. Petersburg called the Stroganoff Apollo, in the left hand of which is a crumpled something which is generally assumed to be the end of the ægis. Prof. Furtwängler now declares that from 1891, when he had a good chance to study the statuette, he has believed it a valueless modern work, and therefore does not interest himself further in the evidence which it might furnish. He goes straight back to inherent probabilities: "We need have no doubt whatever," it is stated on page 407, that the "Apollo with the quiver on his back held the bow in his left hand." Moreover, there was something in the right hand, and it must have been a laurel bough, or more than one, with fillets. The Apollo is then compared with the work of Leochares, the sculptor of the Halicarnassus Mausoleum; and the work is asserted to be a "careful and evidently a faithful Roman copy" of a piece of Greek work, probably a bronze, of the fourth century B. C. To know more about the original Greek statue, we are told to compare the so-called Steinhauser head in the Museum at Basle. There is then a further inquiry into the original type of the statue: it is asked when and where the idea of this Apollo, newly descended from above, ready for action, turning his head to one side and in decided movement, first took shape. The discussion here loses itself in vague suggestion. There is really nothing more to say, for no other sculptures are known which help much toward the answer sought.

The chapter on the Acropolis Temples at Athens, translated by Miss Margaret Alford, is left to the appendix and to smaller print because, as the editor says, it is "mainly of historical and topographical interest." It appears, furthermore, that the editor has made it her aim "to disengage the author's arguments from all such controversial matter as might cumber or obscure them." This is done by putting all reference to contrary theories into the notes. It is not, therefore, the author's "argument" which appears in the body of the text in this appendix, but the author's theory of the historical sequence, the separate character and uses, and the architectural peculiarities of the different temples. Only a perfectly unprejudiced writer, absolutely uncommitted to a theory of his own, and taking time to compare the different theories on this subject, point by point, could hope to show with any completeness how varied and how contradictory are the opinions of competent archæologists. The author's opinion, as simplified by the editor, may be stated as follows: There is no evidence that an older building stood on the site of the Erechtheion. The shrine of Erechtheus and Athena, "attested for the sixth century by the passages from Homer, can be no other than the great 'old temple' discovered by Dörpfeld." These passages from Homer are 'Iliad,' ii., 549, *et seq.*, and 'Odyssey,' vii., 81; it is assumed also that these two poems, or at least the passages cited, are not older than the sixth century (p. 416). This "old temple" is the peristylar temple laid down on the recent maps of the Acropolis as having stood immediately south of the present site of the Erechtheion, so that the column of its northeastern angle would have been in contact with the south wall of the later building, had they both existed together. This old temple had a double naos (or cella), the chamber to the east being that of Athena and that to the west the shrine of Erechtheus; the Erechtheion proper, or western part, having also two small chambers to the east of it. A long paragraph is devoted to a most interesting discussion of the opposing theory that the western compartments of the naos were, here and elsewhere, treasuries and nothing else. The naos of this old temple was of indefinite antiquity, the peristyle later. This old temple must have been the Hekatompedon, for the reason that no late building would have been especially esteemed on account of being a hundred feet long; moreover, the hundred-foot measurement applies to the naos or temple proper, and not to its inessential part, the portico of columns. "Hekatompedon was the official name for the whole edifice," and this building "was, until 480, the only temple of the City Goddess and her companion Erechtheus upon the citadel."

The second temple is the older Parthenon, the building whose substructures exist under the Parthenon of Pericles. Of this building nothing is really known except that it must belong to the time between 479 and 447, and that it was never finished or even nearly finished. If it was abandoned in an incomplete state, deliberately destroyed and replaced by the Parthenon of Pericles, that can only point to its having been undertaken by one party in the state and therefore obstructed and delayed by the opposite party; so that the dominating personality of Pericles and his large views found nothing but a structure just begun, unroofed and barely enclosed, as an obstacle to their own grandiose conceptions. The Parthenon of Pericles was begun in 447, with a naos made much wider than the old one, evidently for the sake of the gigantic statue of Athena which was to be placed there. This new Parthenon still included a double naos, but the whole of it was devoted to Athena. The old temple was still standing and had been restored after the Persian invasion. The worship of Erechtheus remained in the old temple, and no separate building corresponding to the present Erechtheion existed. The opisthodomos which served as the Treasury of the Confederation, was not a part of the temple, but a separate building. The building of the new Erechtheion was undertaken after the peace of Nikias (421 B. C.). This was done as a special recognition of conservative principles and the older worship of Athens, as is indicated by the worship of Athena and Erechtheus in two separate chambers of one naos. The new building was therefore a rebuilding of the old temple, which latter was destroyed, probably as soon as the new structure was sufficiently advanced to be used for worship.

With the above historical examination are combined a consideration of the meaning of the Parthenon frieze, an inquiry into the subject of the eastern pediment and of the western pediment, an attempted explanation of the different divisions of the Erechtheion structure, such as the kekropion and the pandroseion, the valuable objects preserved within this temple, and finally the Temple of Nike, to which a separate section is devoted.

The whole of this examination of the temples on the Acropolis, filling fifty-five pages, is exceptionally interesting in spite of its compactness and the immense amount of matter crowded into it. It ought to be printed in a volume by itself with larger type, with a plan agreeing in all respects with the text, and, indeed, specially prepared for the illustration of the text, and with the notes referring to other and often contrary opinions increased in number. The special value of this long examination is in its completeness and unity. As regards the separate conclusions reached, their actual value is probably very unequal. Thus, the attempt at naming the seated gods at the eastern end of the Parthenon frieze is not more successful than a dozen other explanations that have been offered, while the account of the buildings and their historical succession, which we have stated briefly, is of the highest interest. The whole essay, however, is crowded with novel views, nearly all based upon demonstration sufficient to account for them, if not to prove them, and affording a solid ground upon which to erect new theories and future conclusions.

This, in fact, is the important service that the book as a whole may be expected to render. It will serve as a point of departure. Not in our time will the last word be said in the way of controversy concerning these vexed questions of archæology. New explorations of Greek sites will teach us more than we now know about temples and their architecture. New diggings will give us Greek sculpture among which there will be here and there an original of first-rate importance, and, if the Italian authorities can be brought to the task, the uncovering of Herculaneum alone will probably give us not only Greek originals such as those found in the famous villa, but also Roman copies of masterpieces in incalculable numbers. It will be many a year, however, before this book will be superseded, or its value as a contribution to the history of Grecian art be seriously diminished. Since it is meant for readers who are not professed archæologists, one complaint is in place, namely, that the Greek passages have not their translations appended. There is a considerable and growing class of persons whom we should like to send to this book, few of whom can read these extracts in the original; they are sincere lovers of art, and many (though not enough) professional artists are among them. It is a safe statement that not one in ten of lovers and students of art who would gladly use such a book as this can read Greek with ease. It is safe to say that practically no artists can read Greek. And how easy it would have been to procure literal prose versions of the few passages quoted! Possibly, also, a glossary should be added.

Travels amongst the American Indians, their Ancient Earthworks and Temples. By Vice-Admiral Lindesay Brine. Illustrated. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 8vo, pp. 422.

THE journey of which this volume is the outcome was made in 1869, and our author's

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object was to examine the mounds and earthworks of the Ohio valley and the ruined temples of Guatemala and southern Mexico, with the view of determining, so far as might be, their origin. But while this was his main purpose, it is but fair to add that he was by no means neglectful of what he saw and heard in other directions. Accordingly, there are portions of the volume in which he has gathered together a number of facts which are of interest socially and politically rather than archæologically, and which for this reason will prove peculiarly attractive to the casual reader. Especially is this true of the first two or three chapters, in which we have a somewhat gossipy account of the author's observations and experiences in Boston and elsewhere in the towns and cities of the Atlantic coast. Thus, for example, basing his conclusion upon what he had seen of the effects of emancipation in the West Indies, he tells us (p. 6) that there was not much probability that the negro children who were then at school in our Southern States would ever rise to an equality with the white races (*sic*) around them. Upon this point the testimony of the Catholic missionaries among our Indians is of importance. In fact the problem is the same, whether it relates to the Indian or the negro, or whether, as is unfortunately the case at present with us, it has to do with the Indian and the negro at one and the same time. Accordingly, when these missionaries tell us (pp. 35, 111, 276, 372, etc.) that the efforts of the past three hundred years to improve the intellectual character of the tribes committed to their care have been useless, it may well teach us to look with patience upon the struggles of a people who did not enter upon the upward race until we were nearing the goal. However, be this as it may, opinions upon these and similar topics are in the nature of *obiter dicta*, and though the questions involved, relating as they do to the future of the negro and the Indian, are as important as when they were first broached, and call upon us quite as loudly for solution, yet they may be passed over without affecting the force of our author's conclusions upon subjects that came more immediately within the sphere of his inquiry.

Among these, the mound question, as it is called (including under this title the shell-heaps of Maine and the ancient mines of Wisconsin as well as the earthworks of the Ohio valley), chiefly appeals to us. It may even be said to take on an added interest, since our author (p. 387) evidently inclines to the opinion that the so-called mound-builders originally lived in the Ohio valley, and that, having been driven from that region at some time in the distant past, they moved southward and established themselves in Guatemala, where they built the immense works at Patinamit and Utatlan. He also tells us (pp. 64, 103, 382, etc.) that there was no such difference between the civilization of these mound-builders and that of the Indians who were found here when the whites first landed as would justify the inference that they belonged to different races, and hence he concludes that they were one and the same people. To this conclusion, so far as it relates to the identity of the mound-builders and the Indians of historic times, we do not object. The trend of opinion among competent investigators has been in this direction for some years past; and the recent report of Cyrus Thomas, in the publications of the Bureau of Ethnology, is so exhaustive of the subject as to render any further discussion unnecessary.

But while we are in full accord with our author's conclusion upon this point, there are a number of statements leading up to it which are not accepted, or which can be explained in a different way from that which he has adopted. For instance, so far was it from being the custom of our Indians (p. 68) to torture and kill their prisoners that it was the exception. Even among the fierce and haughty Iroquois in the heyday of their power, almost one-half of their fighting men ('Jesuit Rel.' A. D. 1660, p. 6) were adoptions; and this would have been impossible if the massacre of captives had been the rule. So, too, blue eyes and red hair among the Mandans can be satisfactorily accounted for without the intervention of the Welsh or any other pre-Columbian arrivals; and as for the squares and circles—including those that are wrongly said (pp. 99, 102) to have been erected under the direction of European surveyors—it is only necessary to call attention to the fact that our Western farmers, when fencing in their fields, rarely have the use of mathematical instruments, and that although thus handicapped, they find no difficulty in "running off" squares as large as any of those in the Ohio valley, with the aid of three straight sticks and a good eye. The circles might, perhaps, give a little more trouble, but even they are not beyond the compass of a boy with a string.

In regard to the temples, etc., of Guatemala and southern Mexico, there is not much to be said. Some of the more elaborate among them were in use when Europeans first appeared upon the scene; and, thanks to recent investigations, it is no longer necessary to invent a band of civilization-bearing refugees from Spain (p. 422) or anywhere else, in order to account for the progress of the people who built them. In fact, so radical is the change of opinion on this subject that not only is the development attained in certain favored centres, as, for example, in Mexico and Peru, believed to have been of indigenous growth, but there is a large and growing school of ethnologists who hold with Brinton ('American Race,' p. 44) that wherever there was such a centre, the advance was not monopolized by the people among whom it appeared, but was enjoyed to nearly an equal degree by neighboring tribes of different stocks. In other words, the idea that the civilization of tribes like the Aztecs and Quichés differed in kind from that of the Pueblos and the Indians that lived east of the Mississippi, is no longer entertained. Unquestionably there were differences in architecture, and perhaps in some other respects, but they were more than counterbalanced by the resemblances, and were far fewer than can be found in any of our cities. Even in those instances in which the disparity was marked, it may have been due, as Bandelier suggests, to the exigencies of another climate and of varying natural resources.

Cossack Fairy-Tales and Folk-Tales. Selected, edited, and translated by R. Nisbet Bain. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE field of folk-lore is being more industriously worked than ever, and Mr. Bain contributes the most recent volume on that subject. It is hardly fair to say of the Ruthenian folk-tale, as the translator states in his introduction, that it "has managed, owing to favorable circumstances, to preserve far more of the fresh spontaneity and naïve simplicity of the primitive folk-tales than her more sophisticated sister, the Russian *Skazka*." The effect produced upon a person conversant with Russian folk-tales by the perusal of the majority of the stories in this volume is, that they are more or less familiar, not only in general outlines, but in definite incidents and phrases. While it might be difficult or impossible to point out a perfect mate in the tales of Great Russia to any one of these tales of Little Russia, it is nevertheless a fact that the latter are annoyingly reminiscent. They even contain passages and incidents which are parallel to or identical with passages and incidents in the *byliny*, or epic songs. The Great Russian tales may have been derived from these Little Russian forms, like the Epic Songs of the Kieff Cycle, which are no longer known in the land of their birth, but are still handed down by oral tradition among the peasants of the far north. But it must be remembered that Novgorod the Great formed another cradle of original folk-lore in the Northwest, and that Kieff was settled by colonists from Novgorod.

The Great Russian tales and epics are no more "sophisticated" than those which are presented to us here, though the latter will always seem less sophisticated in the original because of the piquancy and soft mellowness of the dialect in which they are written. Again, while they are, as a rule, no doubt of great antiquity, they have not escaped the intrusion of modern foreign elements, such as that in "The Wondrous Story of Ivan Golik and the Serpents." Ivan is cast into the sea and is swallowed by a great whale-fish, in whose maw he finds wagons containing tobacco-pipes and tobacco, which he uses until the whale feels uncomfortable and swims ashore, when Ivan is rescued. While this Jonah incident may have been introduced and improved upon in very early times, the tobacco interpolation cannot date back further than the seventeenth century, at which time the plant was introduced in Russia.

In "The Vampire and St. Michael" we have the original of Gogol's famous story, "Vy." It must be confessed that the original is far more racy and delightful than the modernized version which Gogol published many years before an attempt had been made to collect the Cossack legends of his native Ukraïna. "The Sparrow and the Bush" is the counterpart of "The Old Woman who went to Market," while "The Golden Slipper" is a perfect and beautifully characteristic version of "Cinderella." The oppressed stepdaughter drives in splendor to church, not to a ball, and the fascinated Tsesarevitch secures both of her slippers by placing pitch on the spot where she is wont to stand there. The prince is represented in the illustration as sitting in church on a handsomely carved bench. The illustrator should have known that no one sits in a Russian church, and that the design of the carving is not Russian. In general, it may be said of the illustrations that they are fairly decorative, but are neither national nor characteristic.

The most thoroughly national and charming tale, "The Tsar and the Angel," narrates how the Tsar, "who was so very proud that he feared neither God nor man," waxed wroth at some words of Holy Scripture which the priest read in church. "To say such words to me," thought he—"words that I can never forget, though I grow gray-headed!" So he orders the priest to smear those words over with grease and never dare to read them again. The angel comes to the priest's assistance, and trains the haughty Tsar to be a good sovereign by making him poor and a vagabond on the face of the earth, and reigning in his stead until the Tsar has "picked up wisdom, if but little."

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"The Ungrateful Children and the Old Father who went to school again" offers a very ingenious and amusing version of the state of affairs with which "King Lear" has made us familiar. The four ungrateful sons, among whom the old man has divided his property during his lifetime, shirk the duty of taking care of him, and decide to send him to school, though he has never learned his letters, because "there will be a bench for him to sit upon there, and he can take something to eat in his knapsack." The aged father cleverly outwits them, and makes them care for him until he dies. The only tragedy is furnished by the sons' wrath and disappointment after his death, and the comedy by the comment of their neighbors: "You see, he learned something at school after all! He was a long time before he *began* learning, but better late than never. It appears to us 'twas a right good school you sent him to."

The translation is spirited and good. The book is entertaining and valuable. Nevertheless, it is surprisingly lacking in the poetry which one would expect from a race so rich in poetical ballads, and which undoubtedly originated the majority of the deeply poetical epic songs. The tales are greatly inferior in poetry, invention, wit, and literary quality to the Esthonian Folk-Tales recently reviewed in these columns.

Papers and Notes on the Glacial Geology of Great Britain and Ireland. By the late Henry Carvill Lewis, M.A., F.G.S., edited from his unpublished MSS. by Henry W. Crosskey, LL.D., F.G.S. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

No single epoch in geology has been the subject of more study and speculation than the glacial period in Great Britain. There were first recognized the traces of a former ice invasion of the land, and it was from British geologists, as well as from Agassiz, that Americans took their first lessons in glacial geology. It is therefore somewhat singular, and at first sight paradoxical, that from an American geologist, and a very young one at that, there should come the first comprehensive and rational explanation of a multitude of glacial phenomena that have been for years in controversy among British glacialists, and that his views should meet such general acceptance among English geologists that one of their number was willing to edit his posthumous manuscripts.

The scientific career of the young Philadelphian, Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, was a very brief but brilliant one, and his early death was a distinct loss to science. After completing his studies of the great terminal moraine of the North American ice-sheet where it crosses the mountains and valleys of Pennsylvania, he was seized with a desire to study similar phenomena in the smaller area of Great Britain, where he would have the benefit of detailed maps and of the observations of a host of trained geologists who had preceded him. He found these observations recorded in over 2,000 articles, the authors of no two of which were entirely in accord as to the proper interpretation of the phenomena observed. The thoroughness of his work is testified to by the fact that, after spending some time in the field with various English geologists, one of them remarked to him that he knew more about the subject than they did themselves. He spent considerable time in Europe, part of which was occupied in the study of petrography under German masters, and resulted in a paper on the origin of the South African diamond deduced from microscopical study of specimens from the Kimberley mines, which excited great interest throughout the scientific world, and met with almost universal acceptation as a good working hypothesis. He had gathered most of the material necessary for a proposed work on the glaciation of the British Isles when he was taken down by typhoid fever on his last voyage to England, and died a few days after his landing at Liverpool.

His last request to his devoted wife, who had accompanied him on all his geological excursions, was that his friend Dr. Crosskey would prepare this material for the press. Only a geologist can appreciate the arduousness and delicacy of such a task as the working up of the field-notes of a fellow geologist, and he can best understand why the editor has published the greater part of the material in the unfinished form in which it stood in Prof. Lewis's note-books. The resulting volume is in consequence perhaps less interesting to the general reader, but it is invaluable to the geologist or geological student, as showing the methods by which one of the best geological minds of the modern school arrives at its conclusions, and with what completeness field-notes may be taken. Dr. Crosskey does not subscribe to all of Prof. Lewis's deductions, and it is possible the latter might have found occasion to modify them to some extent after further investigation; but in the main they present the most plausible interpretation of the salient features of British glaciology.

The Latin Language: An Historical Account of Latin Sounds, Stems, and Flexions. By W. M. Lindsay, Fellow of Jesus College, Oxford. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1894.

THERE was a time, not so very long ago, when it was the fashion for scholars in this country to fancy that little if anything was to be learned in classical studies from the English. This idea, carried to an extreme though it was, our transatlantic friends partly deserved, and in it they were partly the victims of that prejudice against things English which, arising at an early time, was at its fiercest, perhaps, during and just after our civil war. It was deserved because the proverbial insularity of the Englishman apparently shut him off from all that was being done by German philologians—work that Americans were quick to appreciate—while Porson's famous epigram,

"The Germans at Greek
Are sadly to seek,"

saved over from a former generation and used after it had grown stale, seems to have expressed pretty well the average British classical scholar's feelings about the Teutons.

But it is a pity to suppose, as many still do, that the English have not outlived this superstition, or to go on fencing one's self out from the fruits of British scholarship whether grafted on German trunk or springing independent from the soil. The folly of slavishness to such prejudice is apparent when one thinks of the names (not to go further back) of Jowett, Blaydes, Jebb, Sandys, Butcher, and Campbell among Greek scholars, of Munro, Nettleship, Sellar, Ellis, Furneaux, and Mayor among the Latins, of archæologists like Gardner, Head, and Miss Harrison, of the historian Freeman, and of a host of the unfamiliar. And in narrower fields activity is hardly less, for whether or no we agree with the conclusions of writings like those of Haigh on the theatre, of Roberts on epigraphy, and of Monro, whose book on the modes of Greek music was lately reviewed in these columns, yet their words are at least always inspiring of thought, and, together with translations of indispensable works such as Teuffel's and, above all, Brugmann's, they show that ignorance of what is doing abroad can no longer be charged against our cousins of England. And now comes an Englishman who is the first since Corssen to give us a book "devoted to a separate investigation by comparative philological methods of the Latin language, its declensions, its conjugations, its formations of the various parts of speech, and the changes of its pronunciation and orthography."

The partial table of authorities quoted by Mr. Lindsay shows clearly enough that there is little that is "insular" about him. Among them German writings are in a strong majority, but we note also many names that are French, Italian, Greek, English, and even (confusion to Sydney Smith!) American. And the author of this volume of 650 pages laments that the comparatively backward state of our knowledge of Oscan, Umbrian, and Pelignian has prevented him from making it longer by considering more fully than he has done the relations of these languages to the Latin. The merest glance over the pages shows that we have here a thesaurus of information which is sure to be of the greatest value—"no prize composition to be heard and forgotten," but a work which will long be as useful to Latin scholars as Prof. Smyth's 'Dialects' is to be to the Greeks.

There are ten chapters in the book, on the following main subjects: The alphabet (12 pages), pronunciation (133), accentuation (48), Latin representations of Indo European sounds (96), formation of noun and adjective stems (49), declensions, etc. (54), pronouns (31), the verb (94), adverbs and prepositions (47), conjunctions and interjections (20). These are also subdivided into sections. The whole swarms with references to the ancient and modern sources, so that if one is not inclined to agree with Mr. Lindsay on a point of doctrine, he may search the appropriate scripture for himself. This we shall leave to the discretion of readers, for obviously it would be unfair to the author to pick out here and there points on which we chance to disagree with him and to hold them up to criticism. We all have our little fads, and in no branch of philology do we hug them closer than in the very subjects which Mr. Lindsay has treated. A book of this sort can be thoroughly tested only by long thumbing, and not by one or two readings. That this one will stand the test and commend itself as an indispensable handbook, seems at present no matter for doubt. To those who wish to try Mr. Lindsay in point of clearness and method of statement, we commend what he has to say on hidden quantity, double consonants, syllabication, position, and the nature of Latin accent.

Old and New Unitarian Belief. By John White Chadwick. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. 1894. Pp. xii, 246.

THE series of nine lectures here gathered into a volume are well worthy of preservation and of the attention of a larger public than Mr. Chadwick's Brooklyn congregation, for which most of them were originally prepared. The author belongs to the more radical wing of the Unitarian body, though he expresses it as his judgment that "it may well be doubted whether any Protestant sect is so well agreed at present on the main lines of its belief and

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faith as 'the unsectarian sect called Unitarians.'" He cordially accepts the claims of modern Biblical criticism in their extremer forms; he frankly rejects all supernaturalistic conceptions, though he denies with equal positiveness the validity of the assertions of the pure materialist. In Mr. Chadwick's opinion, "before the century completes its round, the pure humanity of Jesus will be as generally received among us [Unitarians] as the unity of God." And this "pure humanity" implies no thought of perfection. The author's hope of immortality draws its strength not merely from the natural cravings of the human heart, but from "the scientific doctrine of the persistency of force," the "doctrine of correlated growth," and "the Darwinian doctrine of the survival of the fittest." His "great salvation" is "salvation by character."

Mr. Chadwick's affection for Parker and his school is conspicuous; but he takes his readers into his confidence as to his own spiritual development:

"I remember well enough how hard it was for me to give up the supernaturalist position. Body and soul seemed parting company. But I remember with much sadder self-compassion the agony of mind and heart when I could not maintain any longer the cause of Transcendentalism as formulated by Theodore Parker, or prophesy any more in its name. But from out the darkness there came hands that pluck ed me out of the horrible pit and miry clay, and set my feet upon a rock; and I found a new song in my mouth.

"It was the development of the scientific spirit that made such a change come o'er the spirit of our dream. . . . I think I am not wrong in my imagination that for many Unitarians of the more thoughtful kind there was a period of thick darkness somewhere along from 1860 to 1880, sooner or later as the individual was quick or slow to recognize the force of the scientific criticism on both the supernaturalist and the Transcendentalist positions."

Yet this exposition of more radical Unitarian thought is not the most valuable feature of these lectures for the general reader. Were it so, they would naturally call for review in the religious journals rather than in the *Nation*. Mr. Chadwick's conclusions will not command the assent of all who bear the Unitarian name—a fact which he frankly recognizes; they will certainly not meet the approval of the great majority of the religious scholars of America. But Mr Chadwick's volume has the merit of giving the best popular history of Unitarian doctrine that has come to our notice. It is not, like the work of Dr. J. H. Allen, recently reviewed in these columns, a sketch of the Unitarian movement as a whole, but a presentation of unfolding Unitarian thought regarding the cardinal principles of the Christian faith. The author, positive as he is in the expression of his own opinions, has recognized this clearly as the main aim of his volume:

"If there is one thing which I hope my book will do over and above all others, it is that it may furnish some correction of a very general impression in the Unitarian mind that Unitarianism is 'the same yesterday, to-day, and forever.' We make much of the changes which other creeds have undergone, and sometimes think and speak as if we had ourselves been mainly influential in bringing these changes about. Something we have done, no doubt; but in the meantime the same Time Spirit which has been at work on the other creeds has been at work upon ours also, and the changes it has undergone have not been less than theirs."

In pursuance of this endeavor, and under the captions of the Doctrine of Man, Concerning God, the Bible, Christianity, Concerning Jesus, the Future Life, and the Great Salvation, Mr. Chadwick has most interestingly set forth the rapid transformations of Unitarian belief. How wide and far-reaching those changes have been, especially in the American development of this way of thinking, he makes clearly manifest.

Not the least attractive quality of Mr. Chadwick's presentation is his modesty of claim for the body to which he belongs, and his charity toward those from whom he differs:

"The common asseveration, 'I am a good Unitarian,' often means, 'I am as rigid a sectarian as you will find in any of the orthodox sects.' But there are better Unitarians, who do not think that we have all the truth there is with us, nor all the goodness, who believe in our ideas, and still more in our principles, and would fain give them freest course, but who are not anxious by what name they shall be called, and whose hope is for an ever-livelier sympathy among all Christian sects and all the great religions of the world."

Altogether Mr. Chadwick has given us a valuable as well as a very readable treatise. An index is perhaps not to be expected in a collection of what were originally lectures, but had one been added, the usefulness of the volume would have been decidedly enhanced.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Book of Words. London: A. Constable & Co.
Baumbach, Rudolf. Frau Holde: Ein Gedicht. Henry Holt & Co. 25 cents.
Black, H. C. *Handbook of American Constitutional Law.* St. Paul: West Publishing Co. $3.75.
Brinton, Prof. D. G. A Primer of Mayan Hieroglyphics. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.20.
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